



LIBRARY RESOURCES & TECHNICAL SERVICES -

Library Resources—The Professional Responsibility, Verner W. Clapp • • The Public Library—An Educational Institution, Ralph A. Ulveling • • Too Much and Too Little; Observations on the Current Status of University Library Resources, Raynard A. Swank • • The Search for a Utopia of Acquisitions and Resources, Edwin A. Williams • • The Miraculous Bubble: A Look at Kalfax Film, Peter Scott • • Acquiring Books from Abroad, Frank L. Schick • • A Study on Long Term Periodical Subscriptions, James W. Barry • • The Printed NUC, Robert B. Slocum • •

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LIBRARY RESOURCES AND TECHNICAL SERVICES

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CONTENTS

	Page
Library Resources—The Professional Responsibility. <i>Verner W. Clapp</i>	3
The Public Library—An Educational Institution. <i>Ralph A. Ulveling</i>	12
Too Much and Too Little; Observations on the Current Status of University Library Resources. <i>Raynard A. Swank</i>	20
The Search for a Utopia of Acquisitions and Resources. <i>Edwin E. Williams</i>	32
The Miraculous Bubble: A Look at Kalfax Film. <i>Peter Scott</i>	40
Acquiring Books from Abroad. <i>Frank L. Schick</i>	46
A Study on Long Term Periodical Subscriptions. <i>James W. Barry</i>	50
Studies and Surveys in Progress. <i>Marian Sanner</i>	54
Additions to Cataloging Rules.	58
The Printed National Union Catalog: Notes and Suggestions. <i>Robert B. Slocum</i>	59
A Note on University Institute Publications. <i>Jack A. Clarke and William H. Patch</i>	61
Use of Serial Shelving Numbers in the National Library of Medicine. <i>Eleanor R. Hasting</i>	62
Cataloging of "Folk Music" on Records. <i>Sherman Anderson</i>	64
A Subject Index to the National Union Catalog. <i>George A. Schwegmann, Jr.</i>	69

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Library Resources—The Professional Responsibility*

VERNER W. CLAPP, *Chairman*
Council on Library Resources, Inc.

BEFORE joining an organization, one should always read its constitution and by-laws; otherwise one can never be sure of what one is getting into. On setting out to prepare this paper I took a look at the terms of reference of the Resources and Technical Services Division. I found there the following: "The Resources and Technical Services Division is responsible for . . . the development and coordination of the country's library resources."¹

That is an assignment! It is bigger, more general, and bolder than was, I think, ever made to the Board on Resources of American Libraries, whose responsibility in this area was made a divisional responsibility when that Board went out of existence a year and a half ago. In the good old days before reorganization we could lean back comfortably in our chairs and not trouble ourselves about resources—that responsibility lay with the Board—with the few worry-warts who had permitted themselves to be appointed to that group. What they did was no doubt useful, but we did not have to participate in their anxieties; the Board was part of no division, did not report audibly, and could be kept decently out of sight as a sort of scapegoat for a profession-wide responsibility which it was difficult to think or to do much about.

But now reorganization has abolished the scapegoat and given a direct responsibility, in even larger terms, to an entire division. Did you realize this? Will you stand for it?

Reorganization hasn't even permitted us the comfort of giving us a Let-George-Do-It escape. It has, indeed, provided the Division with the Resources Committee. Now the assignment of the Resources Committee is the same as that of the old Board on Resources, and is as follows: "To study the present resources of American libraries; to suggest plans [to whom, by the way?] for coordination in the acquisition of research publications by American libraries."²

But it is obvious that there is an enormous gap between the study-of-resources-and-suggesting-of-plans sort of responsibility and the total "responsibility for the development and coordination of the country's library resources." And this total responsibility, for which no scapegoat has as yet been contrived, lies directly at the door of the Division and of every individual member of it.

* Revised from a paper read at the meeting of the Resources and Technical Services Division, American Library Association, San Francisco, July 16, 1958.

If constitutions, by-laws, and terms of reference mean anything, it is presumptive that the Division takes this responsibility seriously and will do something about it. Indeed, this very meeting (planned by your officers nearly a year ago) is, I presume, an earnest expression of that intention.

Let me ask then, are these terms of reference mere pious expressions, drafted in generalized terms only to assure that no other division of the American Library Association shall have any constitutional prerogative with respect to resources; or do we genuinely intend to do something about them? And if so, shall we enlarge the scope and extend the terms of reference of the Resources Committee so as to include the entire responsibility, or do we propose to work as a divisional whole at those portions of the task which we have not assigned? And, if so, do we have a plan of operation? Do we have a goal?

I believe I can assume that none of these questions can be answered as yet; that, on the contrary, this meeting has been planned with a view to provoking discussion looking to some answers. Let me try, then to suggest some of the factors which must enter into such discussion.

Your president has asked me to report, from the national and international point of view, on the current status of work in the development of resources. This is a tall order, and I can hit only some high spots.

The subject of resources can be broken down into a number of sub-topics—planning; development of techniques; financing of projects; coordination of acquisition; specialization and division of responsibility; development of national, regional and specialized libraries; location of the materials acquired; development of depository systems (e.g. copyright, government documents); creation of a record; publication of the record; guides to resources; access to materials; and cooperation in any and all of these, including especially cooperative acquisition, cooperative microfilming, cooperative warehousing, cooperative cataloging, bibliographic centers, union catalogs and union lists. The subject may be further subdivided under categorizations of types of material such as government documents, Middle East publications, literary manuscripts, music, or foreign newspapers. In truth, the subject of resources is at the center of library work and reaches out to embrace the whole of it.

Here, however, let us consider all aspects of the subject under two only. These I shall call bibliographic access and physical access. By the former I refer to the mechanisms by which we learn what books and other library materials are available; by the second, I refer to the mechanisms by which we secure the use of these materials.

Both of these kinds of access have continuously been the concern of the American library world since long before the founding of the American Library Association, and notable achievements have been made in developing mechanisms of both kinds. Obviously, I cannot attempt to list them all. But let me illustrate.

I. By the time we entered World War II there had been developed, in the area of mechanisms of *physical access*, the following (in addition, of course, to the total—and magnificent—resources of the individual libraries of the

country, which had been formed almost entirely with a view to service to particular local constituencies):

1. A national library—indeed a group of national libraries, with responsibilities for acquiring and making available resources over and above the needs of their constituencies.
2. A copyright deposit law, assuring the potential acquisition—in the national interest—of the most important segment of the national book production (and even production of music, maps, prints, etc.)
3. A beginning in the development of regional (State) libraries capable of contributing materially to the resources of their areas.
4. A system for the distribution of Federal Governmental publications.
5. A major demonstration of transferring, first through manual transcription, then through full-scale photography and finally through microphotography, the resources of European libraries and archives to the Western Hemisphere for improved access to inquirers here.
6. A number of instances of specialist agreements between libraries, e.g. in Chicago, New York, Washington, Chapel Hill-Durham.
7. The development of a number of great specialized public libraries—in medicine, science and technology, Shakespearean studies, etc.
8. The establishment of a cooperative warehouse for little-used material (the New England Deposit Storage Library).
9. Establishment of a national archives for the United States Government and the beginning of a nationwide archival system.
10. Acceptance of general responsibility for interlibrary lending and the adoption of a code of practice therefor.
11. Development of feasible methods of service through photocopying (including especially microfilming) and the development of an agreement (the "Gentlemen's Agreement") covering copyright aspects thereof.

II. At the same epoch, to provide *bibliographic access* to these resources, we had among other mechanisms the following:

1. A national—indeed a multi-national—cataloging code.
2. Central sources of cataloging and classification information—Library of Congress (LC), H. W. Wilson Co., Forest Press (publishers of the Dewey Decimal Classification).
3. A system of cooperative cataloging centering at LC.
4. A national union catalog.
5. Several regional union catalogs.
6. Several regional bibliographical centers.
7. The first edition of the *Union List of Serials* (with a second edition in press).
8. Several union lists of specialized materials, e.g. publications of foreign governments.
9. Various guides to the library resources of various regions and of the country as a whole.
10. Major segments of the national bibliography, covering trade books, Federal Government documents, State Government publications, newspapers and periodicals, doctoral dissertations, etc.
11. Various indexes to current periodical and journal literature, including not only the H. W. Wilson publications, but also the great subject indexes such as *Chemical Abstracts*.

12. Other specialized bibliographies, retrospective or current, such as Evans' *American Bibliography*.
13. And, for foreign publications, the foreign national bibliographies, subject bibliographies and periodical indexes, as well as retrospective bibliographies (such as the *Gesamtkatalog der Wiegendrucke* and the *Deutsche Gesamtkatalog*, neither of which was ever completed).

(It is perhaps worth mentioning, in passing, that we had also, at this time—our entry into World War II—witnessed the abandonment of two major attempts at providing bibliographic access on a global scale—the Royal Society of London's comprehensive *Catalogue of Scientific Literature* and the World Catalogue which Otlet and Fontaine had attempted to create in Brussels).

It is apparent from this listing that we were not badly served when we entered World War II. What has happened since and how do we stand now?

Well, in the first place, we found that the resources which we had constructed for times of peace were not adequate for the stresses of war. The very people (including especially the scientists) whom we had tried to interest in the problems of access through the formation of such groups as the Joint Committee on Indexing and Abstracting in the Major Fields of Research, and who had shown not the slightest concern, now accused us of having failed in our mission. We were conscience-smitten; we examined ourselves and took ameliorative measures. But the world had turned a new corner, and our measures fell short of the need. For we had entered a period in which the appropriations for research have increased twenty-fold (Mr. Ulveling gives the statistics in his paper in this symposium); in which undreamed-of discoveries have been made in the sciences and astounding advances in the technologies; in which industry and commerce have made use, as never before, of the information derived from library resources and services; in which the national interest and security have become dependent upon information regarding the rainfall in one area, the petroleum deposits in another, and popular movements and street riots in a third which just yesterday were places of remote academic interest, bearing names unknown to our population as a whole. Simultaneously with these developments, the absolute total of publications has been increasing rapidly, amounting in many subjects, such as chemistry, biology and medicine, to actual doubling of the rate of publication in twenty years or less. New serial titles have spawned by the thousands annually. Publications in languages which previously held little importance for us now became important, and—because we could not read the originals—introduced new problems connected with translation.

In this new era, too, still other factors affected both bibliographic and physical access to resources. Governments, our own included, began to interfere with the free flow of publications. In addition to all the other stuff we had to work with, we were now given the so-called "unpublished research report"—unpublished only in the sense that it had not been accepted into the canon of accredited scientific literature or of the biblio-

graphic apparatus of that literature, but nevertheless certainly published in the sense that it is multifolded and distributed, and in any case cited, demanded and useful.

No, our palliatives could not keep up with this spiral. Consequently our critics, ignoring the magnitude of the problem or the extent of the actual accomplishment to date, unaware also of the history and of the bases of our effort, rushed in to fill the vacuum which we left unfilled. Documentalists and scientific information officers, scornful of card catalogs, catalog codes and the apparent pedantry of library work, offer large promises of "information retrieval" through the pushing of buttons, the wiring of plugboards, the programming of data-processing machines, and the punching of holes or magnetic dots in cards and tape, and claiming large victories when answers which seem routine to us come clicking out of the machines in binary code.

Against this background, what have we done in the last 18 years? Again I break the listing down under physical access and bibliographical access, commencing with the former.

III. Developments since 1940 in improvement in *physical access*:

1. The Farmington Plan. After testing the truth of the allegation that, because we were all acquiring copies of the "best" foreign books we were missing much important material which was less than "best", we adopted the Farmington Plan for the Cooperative Acquisition of Foreign Publications on an experimental basis. Far from comprehensive in coverage, either as to place or form of publication, the Plan now brings in about \$27,000 worth of books a year—a small charge against the total book funds (in the order of \$50 million) available to the participating libraries. But the Plan has many defects. Now, at the end of its first decade, it is being reviewed by the Association of Research Libraries (ARL) which sponsored it.
2. Other cooperative acquisition projects. The Cooperative Acquisition Project organized in connection with the LC Mission to Germany in 1946-7 under the policy guidance of the Board on Resources was important as preparing the way for the Farmington Plan. The Slavic Acquisition Projects supervised by LC provided a source of Soviet publications at a time when these were impossible of methodical procurement. The Documents Expediting Project, also at LC, sponsored by three library associations, renders convenient the procurement of Federal Government publications not available from the Superintendent of Documents. The United States Book Exchange, sponsored by the Council of National Library Associations and other groups, has provided a cooperative mechanism for the distribution of duplicates of low market but potentially high research value. Under a grant from the National Science Foundation, the Midwest Interlibrary Center (MILC) is acquiring on behalf of all its members current files of all journals listed in *Chemical Abstracts* not already acquired by any of its members, and is preparing to do the same for *Biological Abstracts*.
3. Specialization in the interest of diversification. The members of a group of southeast libraries, led by SIRF (Southeastern Interlibrary Research Facility, Atlanta) have specialized in chemical journals in order

to diversify the resources of the area. This is a notable instance; others could be cited.

4. Specialization in the interest of intensification. More frequent are the instances in which individual libraries have reviewed their acquisitions policy in order to do a better job in the subjects of their election. Instances among special libraries are the Hoover Library and the National Library of Medicine; among general libraries, LC and the New York Public Library. Although these were unilateral actions, they are important because they have a direct effect on national library resources.
5. Application of microphotographic techniques to the preservation of ephemeral material. ARL, the ALA Board on Resources and LC assisted the forces of nature with respect to the microfilming of current domestic newspapers; and it now appears that the problem of physical access to this class of publications is substantially solved. ARL stimulated a Foreign Newspaper Microfilm Project whereby MILC holds films of a number of foreign newspapers at the cost and on behalf of a large group of cooperating libraries. LC microfilms a number of current Chinese newspapers, and a number of other large research libraries have similar programs.
6. Application of microphotographic techniques to the inexpensive reproduction of out-of-print, scarce, bulky, unique or costly materials. Great headway has been made in this area. Long files of journals, great sets of government documents (both old and current) doctoral dissertations, scientific and legal series, etc., are now available at a very reasonable per-page cost in the microforms.
7. Application of photographic techniques to the solution of the reprint problem. Much energy has gone into the reprint problem. This energy can now apparently be directed elsewhere; the to-order manufacture of individual copies by Xerographic enlargement from microfilm can now be effected competitively with typographic reprints, both in quality and price.
8. Cooperative warehousing. MILC has added a new dimension to any discussion of cooperation in the organization of resources.
9. Extension of the depository system. Motion pictures, now on safety film, have returned to the copyright deposits of LC. Several Federal agencies, including the Atomic Energy Commission and National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, deposit their publications in focal libraries. Certain international agencies, including the United Nations and Unesco, do the same.
10. Unpublished research reports. A number of agencies, including the Office of Technical Services, LC, and National Science Foundation have been involved in efforts to make this kind of material generally available, to the extent that it is devoid of security classification.

IV. Developments since 1940 in the improvement of *bibliographic access*:

1. The publication of the LC catalogs in book form, sponsored initially by ARL and later by the ALA Board on Resources, and including the author catalog, subject catalog and—now—national union catalog of author entries post 1956.
2. Other current bibliographies of LC: *Monthly Index of Russian Acces*

sions, *East European Accessions Index*, *Southern Asia Accessions List*, *New Serial Titles*.

3. *Canadiana*.
4. *Current Caribbean Bibliography*.
5. The 2nd edition of the *Union List of Serials* and its Supplements, and numerous regional union lists.
6. Robert B. Downs' *American Library Resources; a Bibliographical Guide*.
7. *Dissertation Abstracts*.
8. *United Nations Documents Index*.
9. The List of translations issued by the John Crerar Library for the Special Libraries Association under a contract with the National Science Foundation and a grant from the American Iron and Steel Institute.
10. The *Union List of Microfilms* issued by the Philadelphia Bibliographical Center and Union Library Catalogue and the clearing house of microfilming projects at LC.
11. The *U. S. Government Research Reports*, issued by the Office of Technical Services in the Department of Commerce.
12. The Southwest Missouri Library Service Inc., Springfield, Mo., project, demonstrating for the first time the feasibility of cooperative-centralized processing (including a union catalog of acquisitions) between small independent public libraries.
13. On the foreign scene, numerous national bibliographies, union catalogs, lists of foreign publications received, etc., have been created since 1940.
14. On the international scene there has been much activity, not only in the special subject interest of specialized intergovernmental agencies, but radiating from the general interest of organizations such as the International Federation for Documentation, the International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA), and particularly Unesco. This is a whole chapter by itself; for a mere listing of Unesco's principal activities with respect to libraries, bibliography and documentation has been found to require some 14 columns of printed text (3).

V. Certain activities still in the planning or study stage should also be mentioned; for example:

1. The plans of the Joint Committee on the *Union List of Serials* for a 3rd edition of the *List*.
2. Plans of several historical groups and LC for a National Register of Manuscript Collections.
3. The survey of resources for Slavic Studies sponsored by ARL.
4. The survey of resources for Middle East Studies sponsored by the Social Science Research Council.
5. The survey of American literary manuscripts sponsored by the Modern Language Association.
6. The guide to photographed resources for historical studies sponsored by the American Historical Association.
7. Publication of the pre-1956 imprints in the National Union Catalog, under study by the Committee on Resources, RTSD.
8. The pilot project for "cataloging in source" being executed by LC.
9. Work toward international coordination of cataloging rules under the sponsorship of IFLA.

10. Work toward cooperative microfilming of official gazettes under the sponsorship of ARL.
11. Centralized processing centers under study or development by the California State Library and other states.
12. Problems of copyright in photocopying under study by the Joint Libraries Committee on Copyright in Photocopying of ARL, ALA, and Special Libraries Association.
13. Inquiry into the legal, administrative, bibliographic and communications bases for regionally-coordinated reference services—Dr. Harry J. Krould.

I make no apology for the length of these lists which—you all recognize—could be extended much further. For if we wish to know the position with respect to resources, it would seem to be a first necessity that we inventory our present situation.

One point I should like to stress. In the foregoing lists I have entered a number of items, such as "a national union catalog," "the United Nations Documents Index," "Gesamtkatalog der Wiegendrucke," etc., with those bare words, and without any comment or exclamation mark. But all of you know that every one of the achievements I have listed, from the *Union List of Serials* to the 1935 "Gentlemen's Agreement" on copyright in photocopying, was the result of an enormous amount of work, and in many cases of large expenditure, not only by the executing body but also by participating libraries. (The 1st edition of the *Union List of Serials*, for example, took years of work, great contributions of information by individual libraries, contributions—in 1926 dollars!—of \$1,200 by each of 40 libraries, great facilitation by LC, and assistance to the tune of \$30,000 by the Rockefeller and Laura Spellman Rockefeller Foundations. Similarly, the *United Nations Documents Index*—an obvious enough achievement!—was brought into being only after several years of persistent efforts at persuasion of the UN by librarians, political scientists and others, assisted by a grant from the Carnegie Endowment. Let us not fool ourselves: improvement in the field of resources comes only after hard thinking, the development of a good plan, and persistent and wide-shared effort (almost invariably supported by real money.)

Well, we have reviewed the status. We find that much has been accomplished. We ourselves have accomplished much. What more is there left to do, and how shall we set about doing it?

Since an answer to this question exceeds my assignment, it is appropriate for me to suggest that it be referred to our Committee on Resources, which has a responsibility for planning.

But I would like to convey with the question a suggestion as to objective . . .

The reason why—in spite of all our endeavors and all of our accomplishments—we can be justly criticized for our inadequacies, is that in spite of the global claim made in our terms of reference, we have never really taken responsibility for "the development and coordination of the country's library resources" (quoting again from our assignment) in terms either of physical or of bibliographic access. We have, on the one hand,

trusted to chance that the inadequacies of our own institution would be made good by the finer resources of a neighbor; and if not a neighbor, then of some other library somewhere in the country. We now know that chance, in this matter, cannot be trusted. We have, on the other hand, traditionally disavowed responsibility for the intensive analysis required for bibliographic access to most journal literature. As a result, this largest and most important segment of publication is controlled—or, rather, is left out of control—by the multiplying, duplicating, terribly laggard, expensive apparatus created by the professional societies for which libraries nevertheless generally pay the eventual bill. As a further result, a search of the literature for most subjects is so tedious, so confused, so unsatisfactory and so expensive as to defy and repel the ordinary worker, who is often heard to exclaim by way of excuse that it costs less to duplicate research than to conduct a thorough literature search.

Isn't our job, as the organized librarians of the country, somehow to bring order into this situation? Should not our objective be simply this: to provide an apparatus for bibliographic and physical access so organized and so easily understandable and usable by the inquirer that anyone in the country, no matter where he may reside, may be able (a) efficiently to ascertain what resources exist applicable to the subject of his interest, and (b) with reasonable promptness and expense to get the use of those resources?

This is the objective which I would suggest to our Committee on Resources as a stimulus to its planning. This is an objective worthy of our professional responsibility.

REFERENCES

1. *ALA Bulletin*, 51:862. Dec. 1957. For the terms of reference of the Board on Resources see *Ibid.*, 50:721. Dec. 1956.
2. *Ibid.*, 51:867. Dec. 1957.
3. Clapp, V. W., "Unesco's Program: Libraries, Bibliographic Services, Documentation, A Catalog of Principal Activities. *American Documentation*, 7:127-134. Apr. 1956.

LIBRARY USES OF RAPID COPIERS

"Library Uses of Rapid Copiers"—a series of papers presented at the meeting of the Copying Methods Section, RSTD—ALA during the San Francisco Conference in July, 1958, have been issued in offset form by the Library Photographic Service of the University of California, Berkeley. Included are "The Thermofax in the Library" by Peter Scott, Chief, Microreproduction Laboratories, M.I.T., "The Soft Gelatin Transfer Process (Verifax)" by John G. Gantt, Head, Photoduplication Service, University of Michigan, "The Diffusion Transfer Process", by William R. Hawken, Head, Library Photographic Service, University of California, Berkeley, and an introduction and summary by Hawken, chairman of the Section's New Copying Methods Committee.

Libraries desiring copies are asked to send 15¢ in stamps, to cover handling and mailing costs, to the Library Photographic Service, Room 20 General Library, University of California, Berkeley 4, California.

The Public Library—An Educational Institution?*

RALPH A. ULVELING, *Director
Public Library, Detroit, Mich*

THE PUBLIC library, which was pioneered in this country, is one of America's great contributions to education. Its purpose and function are unlike those of university libraries, which, first in the old world and later in the new world, were established to serve students and scholars, and through them to aid in preserving and extending knowledge. On the other hand, the public library was conceived as an institution to diffuse knowledge widely. It was intended as a common center to which all the people of a community might go for whatever information, inspiration, and even informal education they might draw from recorded facts, from experience, or from the aspirations of thoughtful men of all times. This broad mandate is the common denominator which allows us to speak of public libraries in a collective sense.

But they are not alike. In the first place, the public library systems of America are in different stages of development. Even more significant, however, is the fact that the needs of the communities they serve are vastly different. The crossroads library serving a homogenous clientele is small and relatively uncomplicated, as opposed to its great metropolitan counterpart which has within its framework, not only all the services found in smaller cities, but highly specialized research facilities as well. It is impossible therefore to base my remarks on an average public library. Averages are creations of statisticians; they are not accurate reflections of life situations. Of necessity, I will therefore direct my attention, at times, to fundamental services which are applicable to all public libraries, and at times to highly specialized book resources which can be found only in the larger institutions.

The public library—any public library—lays claim to being an educational institution. If it is, then it has positive obligations which can be fulfilled only by positive efforts to reflect this fact in the operating assignments of the staff, in the organization of the library, and in the book selection practices.

I begin by raising a question on library organization. Is our book classification system appropriate to the objectives of public library services? Or did public libraries, more than a century ago, merely take over from university libraries their plan of book organization and then carry on unquestioningly with a scheme which was devised for an entirely different purpose? In 1936 in Detroit we raised this question and suggested a solution.

* Paper presented at the program meeting of the Resources and Technical Services Division of ALA, San Francisco, July 16, 1958.

but because of failure to win administrative endorsement at that time, it was not actually tested until 1941. This plan, called Reader Interest Classification by John Chancellor, then the Adult Education Specialist at ALA, and heartily commended by Lyman Bryson, whose interest in library adult education was strong, may not be the final answer that is needed. But it is interesting that one of our distinguished foreign visitors, Dr. S. Das Gupta, of Delhi University Library, in 1955 seized on it as one of the most original advances made by American libraries in the 20th Century. In a fourteen-page summing up of his impressions of American libraries (*Journal of the Indian Library Assn.*, v. 2, No. 2, 1956) he has this to say about it:

"In all the branches and in one department of the Detroit Public Library the organization of books on shelves is based on an engaging pattern of classification, derived from the basic interests of human life. Logically it involves cross-classification and, therefore, it is not Aristotelian. The ordinary schemes of bibliographical classification have one feature in common. They are analytical and they attempt to divide knowledge into mutually-exclusive fragments. But a man's life is not fragmentary. For example, when people marry or set up a home or have children, the complex of their interests is as whole as life itself. To them the effect of any analytical schemes of classification, however broad-based, looks 'disorganized'. It is not less of classification that suits them better. They need a different kind of classification and more of it, with well-articulated, well-formed and well-organized details. The Detroit scheme of classification is a fine example of what the right kind of technique in its right place can achieve to liven up a mass of books in such a way that the arrangement itself communes with life. Such a classification helps the ordinary reader. It trains the librarian to see all-together the many lines of interest that pass through the nodal points of life, to assess from the use of books whether the library really has its roots in the community, and to develop concrete and humane notions of book selections and book service. Being, however, limited by its own relevant purpose, the readers' interest classification is not intended to be used to organize large collections of book for multipurpose use, for which analytical schemes of classification are better suited."

I quote this somewhat philosophical statement of a foreign observer here primarily as a plea to leaders in the field of cataloging and classification to recognize that the great mass of libraries in this country, public libraries, need your thoughtful, constructive help in devising a scheme of organization that will further their objectives. Distinguished work has already been done in the refinement of classification based on divisions of knowledge. Important as this may be for universities and the central collections of very large public libraries, it is not sufficient. Something quite new, quite different, is needed for the thousands of other smaller libraries, whether they be branch libraries in large cities or city and county libraries in smaller communities, if the Resources and Technical Services Division of ALA is going to make its fullest contribution to the best development of libraries in this country.

The second item I wish to speak of concerns one of the library's greatest resources, its professional personnel. In recent decades great strides forward have been made in reducing the amount of time that has been spent on the routine operations necessary to control the continual flow of books into a library, out of it, and in again. To act responsibly with public property, controls are necessary. If machines can facilitate the mass handling of book loans and returns, that is good. A problem develops, however, from the fact that some librarians, perhaps too many, jump to the assumption that a library's efficiency increases as mass methods are introduced more and more widely in the library's total activity.

But the public library is not one of the media of mass communication and should not organize its fundamental services on a mass basis. Ten years ago, when I was a member of the United States National Commission for UNESCO, I tried, within the limits of my persuasiveness, to have libraries so recognized. Eventually it became clear to me that a precise distinction which I now recognize as sound and proper, kept libraries out of the mass communication category. To that body a mass medium is one through which a message is distributed widely in a single form. All listeners hear identical words coming out of the radio or from the TV. The monthly magazine brings the same pictures and the same articles at the same time into all homes that subscribe for it, regardless of its usability in many homes at the time it comes. But the public library, unlike motion pictures or any of these, should provide an individualized service for every patron who comes to it. Thus it is not a mass medium providing one message for all, but is rather a medium for serving masses of individuals with a prescription service whereby each gets the precise thing that is best suited to his particular needs, ability, interests, and background.

For this prescription service to function efficiently there must be provided a creative contact between the librarian and the books being added to the library. There is a danger that the librarians who must function as reading counselors may lapse into something less than their best potential, if new books are sent to them selected by others, classified by others, fully cataloged by others, and ready to be placed on the proper shelf, with the public service librarians not being required to exercise their judgment on the books at any step in the entire process. On this problem, Dr. D. Gupta, if I may quote him again, has some interesting things to say in the section he called *Librarian and the World of Books*—

"The points of contact (with the world of books and of knowledge) . . . are located in the operations of book-selection, classification-cataloging and reference and bibliographical assistance to readers. For a better integration of the professional librarian with the world of knowledge and books, these centers of control need to be imaginatively set up and effectively interlinked, which administration alone does not achieve. In the public libraries in America, the professional librarian is better integrated with the book-world. Even in the big metropolitan system of Detroit, in spite of centralized administration, the branch librarian is actively participating in selecting books, classifying books according to 'readers' in-

terest' scheme, and giving reference and bibliographical assistance to readers. This triple link with the world of knowledge and of books is not always maintained in the university or college libraries and, consequently, 'bookmanship' as an art does not grow out of the day's work. . . ."

This point of organizing the day's work in such a way that continual contact with print and ideas can never be superseded by even the most ingenious plans for mass handling of books is fundamental in the preservation of a library's greatest resource—a staff competent to function as reading counselors.

The third and last item I shall discuss is the book collection. On this point Dr. Robert D. Leigh, in the General Report of the Public Library Inquiry, has stated some significant truths in his opening paragraph on Library Materials:

"Public Library resources in terms of books and other materials are determined to a large extent by the concept of public library functions held by the librarian and the library board. Their definition of services will be reflected in the kind and quality of annual purchases. . . ."

In other words, a determination to make the library an educational instrument will readily be apparent by the quality and proportion of books provided for general readers in fields of serious adult interest. The converse is also true; a disproportionate number of books of light fiction and popular non-fiction will mark a library as a recreational agency. The former type, it seems to me, most nearly fulfills the best purpose for which public libraries were developed.

Since the basic tenets of public library objectives as put forth in our professional literature are broad, and since no library, small or large, can purchase without limit, each library must have a policy statement to guide its week-by-week selections. Once this has been carefully thought out, giving full recognition to all facets of the community's interest, the library will be well prepared to answer unreasonable criticism, and should courageously do so. Criticism may come either because certain books have been purchased or because certain books have not been purchased. In either case the complaint may be unjustified by any good standard of library service. There are cheap, worthless novels that have no place in a library even if they achieve "best seller" standing. Likewise there are books of ideas that belong in a comprehensive book collection even though most people consider the ideas impractical or unsound. Such items may be kept available but do not require promotion on the open shelf of every branch library, or even on the open shelf of the Main Library.

In the past few years Detroit has repeatedly been in the news because of a police effort to rid the newsstands of certain paperback books. Throughout this period the Public Library has operated its affairs with complete independence and without regard for decisions made by the Police Department or the Prosecutor's Office. Time after time writers from other cities concerned with threats to intellectual freedom have ex-

amined the Library's card catalog to see to what extent public access to library books has been adversely influenced by the police. In several cases these writers have spoken to me before leaving the city and have universally commended the Library. It is a matter of regret to me that these same persons have not seen fit to include such commendations in their published reports on what they have referred to as Detroit's censorship.

Because of the situation there I thought you might like to hear the statement of book selection policy followed by the Detroit Public Library. Before reading it, a word of explanation may be helpful. In Detroit the Public Library until recently was the only large library in the city. Consequently it developed its reference-research resources to an extent seldom found in other public libraries. The aggregate of books in the ten departments which comprise the Reference services is approximately one million volumes, as opposed to nearly 900,000 in the Home Reading services. I wish to point out, however, that books in the Reference Departments are available on call or through intra-loan to readers who wish to take them out for study at home.

Library Objectives and Book Selection Policies— Detroit Public Library

September, 1954

The people of Detroit are a heterogeneous group of nearly two million people with widely-differing interests, educational backgrounds and native ability. Behind or beside all of these is a mass of industrial and similar organizations, having book needs that are quite as definite as the book needs for individuals. For all this vast assemblage, the Detroit Public Library is the common book center to which they turn, with the full expectation that books and other material suitable to their individual needs will be available when required.

To function adequately in such a situation, the Detroit Public Library must operate as two distinct but coordinated libraries: The Home Reading Services and the Reference-Research Services.

- a) The Home Reading Services provide the books for general non-specialized readers, then, through stimulation and guidance, promote their use, to the end that children, young people, men and women, may have opportunity and encouragement for their fullest development as individuals, as members of a family, as citizens. Since this service is concerned with the best personal development of people through existing knowledge, rather than with the refinement and extension of knowledge itself, its purpose in selecting books is to choose the best and the most usable that are available at varying levels.
- b) The Reference-Research Services have the responsibility for preserving knowledge in its most comprehensive sense, and for maintaining open avenues for the exercise of intellectual freedom of inquiry. To carry this out, they must provide the usual as well as the obscure, the scholarly, and even the socially, economically, religiously, or politically unorthodox materials necessary for research.

The Library in choosing books applies certain standards as to quality of writing, accuracy, completeness, and integrity of the writer. In approving

each title under consideration, these standards must vary, depending on the availability of materials and the availability of funds. With all the exigencies that can and do develop in the course of years, the excellence of a book selection policy will depend less on carefully defined criteria for judging books than on:

- 1) The careful practices established to sift and resift books under consideration for purchase, and later to reconsider any title which either the staff or the reading public feels may have been misappraised, and
- 2) A carefully selected staff of librarians having integrity and professional judgment of such degree that, within their field of service, they merit the same confidence accorded the doctor, the lawyer, and the art curator in their respective fields of service. But not every member of public will agree with every decision made. The best evidence of the policies being pursued and to be pursued is in the record of the past.

The division of responsibility between the two services makes it possible through the Home Reading Services to select and promote vigorously the books which are deemed by the Library to have the greatest potential for helpfulness to people generally. Through the co-ordinate service, access is maintained for wide exploration by the inquiring mind without the Library necessarily putting its stamp of approval on all the books within that service. This does not mean that the one million books in the Reference-Research departments are all questionable. Many, if not most all of them, are such highly specialized items that the general reader would not likely be interested in them.

Can such a division of responsibility operate outside a great metropolitan library? I believe it can and should, and that service to millions of readers will be bettered when it does. Under present professional admonitions, the very small or the medium sized library feels a compulsion to do everything expected of the largest library: that is, to provide and promote the best books for readers of all ages; to provide the informational books needed by all elements in the community; and finally to maintain open avenues for intellectual inquiry by not restricting purchases to books presenting the generally accepted ideas or social mores. Practically, this extremely broad responsibility is economically impossible for many libraries to fulfill, so a little of each is done, lest the librarian be charged with dereliction of duty. Far more practical and beneficial, it seems to me, would be for these smaller libraries to concentrate their book funds on providing for materials which will meet the informational needs and books that will substantially aid the educational development of the community and let the State Library be the agency to assume full responsibility for providing the smaller local agencies, through interloan, with the books of experimental writing and off-beat thinking, etc., which will at best have a very limited use. All of this is within the framework of existing machinery; only the interpretation of the administrators of the state libraries and the administrators of local libraries, as Dr. Leigh pointed out in another context, are needed to implement this plan effectively. I am aware that the development of the regional organization, as promulgated in the new Standards will have an important bearing on the

problem here pointed to, but the widespread creation of regional libraries may be years in becoming a reality.

Up to this point, I have spoken only of the books required by public libraries for the so-called general reader service. Let me now speak briefly on the books for study and research by specialists.

One of the major changes that has come in the past decade and a half to many large public libraries is an increasing need for highly specialized books, maps, reports, and printed records generally, from around the world. Industries which are the economic life blood of cities now compete in the markets of the world, both for raw products and for customers. This fact has brought to the Detroit Public Library requests for the most detailed information on the Indians who work in the Bolivian tin mines, even on the number and duration of their religious observances, all with a view to determining in advance reasonable production schedules. In another instance the call was for material on quite another part of the world—Egypt. In that case the need was for seasonal rainfall figures for the Nile Valley, the extent and character of roads, the intensity of the heat, and other factors that might have a bearing on the spraying of cotton crops. These are cited merely as examples to show the breadth of resources that must be available in a large public library today to meet the completely unpredictable needs of its community.

But the breadth of information required is now matched by the need for depth. Prior to World War II the United States depended heavily on Europe for exploratory research. With the virtual collapse of Germany and the breakdown of established patterns of activity elsewhere on the continent, America was forced to look to its own genius for new developments. The story of what happened can best be told with figures. In 1935 the total amount spent on research in this country was \$200,000,000 (one-fifth of a billion). By 1941, two years after the start of the war in Europe, this had increased four and half times, to \$900,000,000. The last year of the war, 1945, the figures had grown to one and a half billion dollars. Five years later, 1950, even that high figure was nearly doubled, and by 1955 it had doubled again. By the end of 1956 the total was six and a half billion dollars, 3300% more than twenty years earlier. This rapid expansion was due in part to the Federal government's spending, but only in part. Industry has expanded its programs of research quite as rapidly as the government. And research wherever conducted is highly dependent on libraries.

Since university libraries are too seldom sufficiently close at hand for practical use by industrial research organizations, many of the large public libraries are perforce having to develop their book resources in sufficient depth to support such research activities in the community. The need for these resources has shown not only in the daily requests but in another curious way as well. In the competition between corporations for the highly trained talent necessary to carry on their programs, industry has found it necessary to give the specialists being sought, detailed information on the kind of library resources that will be available to work with.

On several occasions the Detroit Public Library has been called on by the personnel officers of industry for statements on the Library's holdings which they could in turn place before their prospective candidates.

Simultaneous with the big research expansion in industry has come another change—some years ago it was usual for industrial firms to contract with universities for the basic research they wished, and their industrial staffs were limited largely to applied research. Today the trend in many places is just the opposite. The contracts with universities are for limited testing jobs, and the industrial men are largely concerned with basic research. This change has tremendous implications for public libraries in terms of resources required.

Though a reference-research collection of a million books inevitably has tremendous strength in most fields of learning, we know that no library can be all things to all men. Therefore in Detroit we have established four levels of development to guide us in the future upbuilding of the reference-research library, and have determined which subjects will fall within each group. The levels set up are:

1. Subjects which will be represented to provide some information but will not be built up. (e.g. Underground literature of World War II)
2. Subjects on which a good representative collection for wide reading and study are maintained—in other words, a good working collection. (Education)
3. Subjects on which the broadest possible representation of contemporary materials will be maintained without attempting to assemble the earlier history of these subjects. (Chemistry, Sociology)
4. Subjects which will be developed to such a point of completeness that they may, even in the most discriminating sense of the word, be termed research collections. (Old Northwest and Great Lakes History, Automotive History, Labor)

This type of bench mark we feel is essential to an orderly planned development.

At the beginning I stated that the public library as an educational institution has a positive obligation that can be fulfilled only by positive efforts. These obligations will not be fulfilled through the negative approach of a book selection based on meeting reading pressures created by costly advertising programs which promote ephemeral and sometimes quite unworthy items. Nor are circulation statistics a gauge for measuring a library's positive influence. Therefore I say again, the public library can hope to serve an educational purpose only if its book resources represent materials that can educate and if it has a staff that can make the books meaningful. For the other facet of public library service—the specialized services—enormous expansion in breadth and depth of the book resources are necessary.

In concluding, may I say that no public library that I know of has even approached its ultimate development. None ever will. Public libraries collect and transmit according to the needs that develop around them. In a great urban center, and in the world at large, problems are

spawned faster than they can be defined—much less resolved. And since human problems and the knowledge to cope with them have no terminal point, public libraries can have none. Today public libraries stand in mid-course; their greatest accomplishments lie ahead.

Too Much and Too Little; Observations on the Current Status of University Library Resources*

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THE CURRENT status of library resources is an elusive topic that I have skirted warily in this effort to represent the position of the university. It was futile, for example, to try within the scope of this paper to evaluate the resources themselves. Evaluate for what? If asked whether a great university library had enough resources, I would answer no, from one point of view. If asked whether it had too many, I would answer yes, from another. And I would be right both times. The library is too small and yet too large. In trying to cope with this paradox we continue feverishly with one hand to extend the collections, while with the other we probe nervously for ways to constrain them, to create optimum selections of manageable size. In one breath we cry for quantity, in the next for quality. It is this paradox that I want to explore—this manifestation of the contradictory and confused conceptions which guide the university library in the acquisition and disposition of resources.

The status of the university library in the academic world is changing; its current position is difficult to estimate. The rising intellectual tide of the century has engulfed one position after another. The role of the scholar has been revolutionized; his life and habits have been transformed since the day he worked alone in his private study. The methods and organization of research have been altered profoundly. There is no reason to suppose that the status of the library is any more final than that of research or of the scholar himself.

Our confusion arises from the difficulty of assessing our position in what begins to resemble another intellectual revolution, perhaps as great as the one that created the modern university. This new revolution, like

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the earlier one, is a function of growth. The advancement of knowledge once required that teachers become productive scholars, that they join with independent researchers to form schools, and that these schools unite to form the university, which became the organized center of both teaching and research. The new structure enabled the scholar, through specialization, interdependence, and the pooling of resources, to deal with quantities and complexities of knowledge that he could no longer encompass alone. For over fifty years this structure was adequate. Since the end of World War II, however, it has become increasingly evident that even the university can no longer encompass the task alone. It is still the center of learning, but the full responsibility for the advancement and transmission of knowledge is again being widely shared. Undergraduate teaching is regaining separate status, both within and without the university. Independent research agencies, to which the university is often a mere sub-contractor, have been sponsored on a very large scale in government, industry, and elsewhere. Even the university's role in the advancement of knowledge is now becoming specialized, its contribution dependent in large measure upon those of other agencies. The organization of research and the pooling of intellectual resources have begun to assume national, even international, proportions.

In this context, we have a right to be confused about the status of the university library in the acquisition of resources, and I expect that our faculty colleagues have an even better right. As long as the university could embrace substantially all knowledge and organize its contributions independently, the acquisitional policy of the library was fairly clear. For many decades the librarian busily acquired everything of present or potential use to the university program. From time to time new fields of acquisition were recognized and exploited—newspapers, diaries, government documents, house organs—as intensified scholarly methods and the advancing boundaries of knowledge demanded. But eventually recorded knowledge grew faster than the library. Even at a geometric rate of growth, the library ceased to gain upon the expanding literatures of fact, opinion, and interpretation that it had helped to germinate. While growing faster than ever, it could no longer hold to the traditional goal of completeness and self-sufficiency with any hope of success.

Discussions of acquisitional policy then tended to emphasize selectivity, quality, and the focus on local, specialized needs. In the evaluation of prospective acquisitions, distinctions were drawn between needs that are improbable or unlikely and those that are likely or certain. Perhaps everything isn't worth acquiring after all. Perhaps money is being wasted in the building of monstrous, inefficient machines. A discriminating policy that is based on the known needs of important scholarship might actually be more productive as well as more economical.

In our darker moods we have tended to emphasize the phrase "important scholarship." A great many books deserve our attention, perhaps most of them; some have changed the world. But how many are just grist in the academic mill! About this time we take Barzun's *Teacher in America*¹

down from the shelf and reread a number of tasty bits about the academic nonsense that has caused much of our trouble. We meditate then about all the information that was never worth discovering, the ideas that never needed expressing, and the books that never should have been written. If only the academic world itself were more discriminating, if only it could practice some measure of verbal economy, the problem of the library might be solved.

There is some sense in this. Somewhere in the blind rush of discovery there is need of evaluation and synthesis. It is just as important now to see life whole as it was a century ago; it is only more difficult. The academic man might well forego the discovery of some new facts in order to digest the ones he already has and turn them to human use. Knowledge is infinite, and the everlasting pursuit of it will do no good unless we can still sift the more meaningful from the less and perceive the essence.

Thus the goal of the carefully selected, well rounded library is still valid—the library that the mind and spirit can embrace. Indeed, it is needed now more than ever before. The range and magnitude of resources in the modern library are beyond the capacity of any one man to comprehend. The library has become an enormous conglomeration, the greater and still increasing part of which is rarely used by anybody. The improbable and the unlikely have engulfed the likely and the certain.

This thinking, especially when supported by financial necessity, commends a policy of ruthless choice, not only in the acquisition of additional books but also in the weeding out of those already acquired. It commends discrimination, proportion, and balance in the molding of a library that can be used with the greatest possible effect and efficiency. It argues for a library that is well within the means of every major university and that satisfies a current, significant local need. Moreover, it is consistent with the recent reemphasis on undergraduate education, particularly general education, in the university curriculum. The university itself has begun to realize that the essence of learning has been dissipated in the proliferation of knowledge, that summary and evaluation are still basic to the education of man.

Yet the proliferation of knowledge continues. The exploration of the unknown leads by definition to paths that are neither likely nor certain. Nothing is more improbable than great discoveries not yet made; and who can evaluate in advance the seemingly off-beat investigations from which they sometimes come? And books are the record, in many fields of raw material, of discovery. It is a platitude that any scrap of poor paper indented with pale print might sometime reveal something of value to somebody. Probably not; but should the librarian judge? Dare he ruthlessly choose? Can he commit to oblivion any appreciable part of the record without violence to his calling? Can he assume the mantle of prophecy by declaring that these are useful but those are useless bits of knowledge?

There is sense in this too, such compelling sense as to justify the amassing of even our largest collections, however costly, inefficient, and incomprehensible. Even though it is clear that the universe of knowledge, like

that of research, can no longer be circumscribed by the university, the librarian is still impelled to try. Thus the goal of completeness, the fullest possible coverage of all existing resources, is also still a valid objective.

The necessity of selection on the one hand and of coverage on the other is enough to induce schizophrenia in the best of us. Both objectives are valid, and although in these times they catch us coming and going there is no real conflict of principle between them. Discovery has always been followed by the consolidation of new positions; the expansion of knowledge should result in new syntheses and evaluations. Again, at this juncture the confusion seems to derive from a new period of transition in the structure of the intellectual world, a period in which these two objectives only appear to be in conflict. I have no doubt that we will still have coverage in the future and we will also have selection, but not necessarily in the same old places.

Such transitions have occurred before, and possibly with every bit as much confusion. The whole history of the coverage and selection of library resources is embellished with conflicts over where and how they should be kept. Even their present disposition is still not gracefully accepted by all members of the faculty. It might be reassuring, if not enlightening, to re-examine the past and present from this point of view.

I expect that every true scholar would still hang the library if only he could get all of his books back into his private study. This impulse is so obdurate that, seventy-five years after he lost this battle, he still adheres to the principle that a symbolic number of library books should never be returned to the library shelves. I take a tolerant view of this. For centuries the scholar depended upon his private library and worked as hard as any of us, perhaps under even greater financial stress, to achieve what we now call coverage. He was the center of learning, and his scholarship depended in very large part upon the adequacy of his personal book collection.

But he had in due course to give up the struggle. However reluctantly, he had to narrow his field and pool his library effort with that of his colleagues. Even so, he did not give up his private library; and he still has it, although its functions have changed. He relinquished the goal of coverage to agencies of broader base but retained two things: the everyday tools of his specialty and the broader selection of best books that enriched his personal life.

Whether this agency of broader base was first a school, an institute, or the university itself, my history does not tell me; but we know that eventually it was the university. We know also that the library of the college that antedated the university was small and relatively unimportant. But once the scholar transferred his loyalty from his private to his university library he labored zealously to strengthen the latter. The library of the university came alive. The university was now the center of learning, and the community of scholars depended upon a common library resource.² This was a significant transition. Indeed, to some extent it is still going on as the private research libraries, begun fifty or more years ago, of some of the elder members of our faculties are finally bequeathed to the university.

So the university library, as a device to deal with the expansion of recorded knowledge, had a recent beginning. The scholarly traditions upon which it was based were old, but the method was new, as were the place and the scholar's relationship to it. It was a response to necessity, a product of growth. Possibly nobody really wanted it, but few could deny it.

When the confusion of loyalties that attended this transition had been resolved, the university library had a clear field. With the help of the faculty it now assumed the full responsibility for amassing the printed record and it was equal to the task for a number of decades. It was not, I suppose until the 1930's—again my history is wanting—when the new structure began to creak. I think it was about that time when the generations of free-wheeling, acquisitive librarians began to succumb to the present breed (myself included) of penny-pestered, size-conscious, schizophrenic administrators. It took the depression, coupled with the distinguished success of our predecessors in building collections, to bring on our present dilemma.

For one thing, some faculties, particularly in the sciences and professional schools, never had fully transferred their loyalties to the university library as such. Not being so oppressed by an over-abundance of resources as other faculties, or merely preferring to keep their books closer to themselves, or perhaps still distrusting this new super-library scheme, they had continued to maintain school and department libraries for a selection of their essential books. Nobody seems to have worried about this as long as the goal was simply to acquire more books. But when the pressure for economy, for the reduction of duplication, and for greater efficiency of management set in, some administrators undertook to complete the transition to a centralized university library. They did not always succeed, and perhaps fortunately so, because now that the general library is twice as large as it was then, it doesn't seem very efficient either, and the newest trend is back toward decentralization. In any case, these department libraries still hold a position somewhere between the main university library and the working part of the scholar's private library. They represent, in one degree or another, the valid need of keeping at home a substantial though limited part of the books in a special field and of falling back on a larger general reservoir for marginal materials and for the storage of infrequently used books when space at home is exhausted.

Another early symptom of distress was the browsing room. If the department library is regarded as analogous to the working part of the scholar's private library, augmented and one step removed, the browsing room may be likened to the other part. Granted that, where browsing libraries are concerned, the gentleman was sometimes confused with the scholar, the general idea was to set apart from the indistinguishable masses of research materials a comprehensible selection of best books. The main collections had grown so large as to become ineffective in the stimulation of thoughtful, discriminating reading. They now failed to inspire a sense of values to enrich the understanding, or to sharpen the critical and interpretative faculties. In effect, the browsing room was a new synthesis in the disposition of library books.

It did not, however, succeed very well. The idea was sound; it responded to a perennial need that is still keenly felt. But the method was inadequate. Basically, the room had no curricular counterpart; it was extra-curricular. It looked and felt like a bit of fluff on the academic tide. Not until the tide itself was turned did the idea begin to take realistic form. In response to the same need there followed in due course a revival of general education as against the proliferation of special studies. The curriculum too had grown so large as to fragment the whole man. The idea of the browsing room was then embodied with greater substance in the undergraduate library.

The undergraduate library, whatever the specific form it may take, is a selective counterpart of the library of record. It is quality as against quantity, the summation as against the accumulation of raw data. The very contemplation of it improves our mental health, in that it promises new fulfillment of a major responsibility that had necessarily been sacrificed to other responsibilities. This sacrifice, of course, had never been required of the college librarian. Indeed, the undergraduate library is a college library, re-created within the university.

The undergraduate library, however, offers no appreciable relief from the growth of the research collections. It is a palliative but not a cure. The quantitative problems of coverage still harass every large university, as the collections overflow the stacks into attics and basements elsewhere. Thus storage becomes another symptom of distress. The formalization of book storage has the willing approval of probably no faculty in the country. Again, no one really wants it. Yet some universities have found it necessary to erect specialized storage buildings to supplement the main stack. These buildings do offer relief, but still no long term cure. They can cut the cost of retaining existing little-used collections, and they can cushion the eventual transfer of collections to more distant places; but in twenty, forty, or eighty years they will have overshadowed the main libraries of many universities. The ogre of exponential growth will have merely been shunted to the backyards of our campuses.

All these organizational devices—the scholar's private library, the school and department libraries, the main university library, the undergraduate library, and the storage library—all have served on the one hand to extend the overall coverage of book resources or on the other to separate selected collections from the whole. The extension of coverage has entailed the progressive pooling of less frequently used resources in larger organizational units, a process that has been accompanied by further specialization and selectivity in the earlier, smaller units. The newer larger units have been superimposed upon but have not superseded the earlier ones. As the responsibility for the coverage of less frequently used materials has been transferred to larger units, the earlier ones have been focussed more sharply upon frequent local needs, such as the working tools of special fields and the general selections of best books. Each stage in this progression has resulted to some degree in confusion and the conflict of loyalties, because an ever increasing proportion of the total resources comes to rest

in more distant places under agencies farther removed from the individual scholar.

The next transition to agencies beyond the university—a transition that has, of course, already begun—may be expected to be particularly difficult. Although it is apparent that the university can no longer cope individually with all its own library needs, the subordination of university interests and the development of extra-university loyalties will take time, patience, and probably the cudgel of necessity. The definition and acceptance of a modified role for the university library will be required. The acquisitional policy of the individual library will need to be reoriented to a larger frame of reference.

The general nature of this reorientation seems reasonably clear even now. As the individual scholar once relinquished his responsibility for library coverage to the department and main libraries of the university, the university library must now relinquish some of its responsibility, first for a few troublesome classes of materials, then for increasingly large parts of the universe of resources. This does not mean that the university library will become smaller; on the contrary, I would expect it to continue to grow larger. It simply means that the library will acquire locally a smaller proportion of the total, that it will become more selective within a universe that is growing faster than itself. It will tend to focus more closely on local institutional needs and to respond more readily to teaching and research in progress, while the more abstract and conjectural function of completeness is gradually reassigned to extra-university agencies. The dominant goal of the individual university library will shift, like that of other organizational units before it, from coverage to selectivity.

The idea is clear enough, but the method of its implementation is not. Two problems must be faced: first, clarification of the bases of local selection and, second, establishment of extra-university agencies to extend the coverage of materials that cannot be acquired locally. We may now examine briefly each of these problems, which are in effect a re-statement of the two horns of our dilemma—the valid need of both completeness and selectivity.

If the individual university library must become more selective, which books should be kept at home and which resigned to the next more remote stages of accessibility? It is one thing to select books for an undergraduate library; it is another to choose among resources for research. The answer seems to lie somewhere in the analysis of resources and of their uses and in the determination of their best distribution through various stages of accessibility, from department libraries and browsing rooms on up. This analysis, moreover, is not so simple as the identification of more or less frequently used titles. It consists of the identification of categories of materials and the definition of their relevance to scholarly needs, past, present, and future. Herman Fussler has noted that "there may be, in many fields, real and predictable differences among little-used books."³ When millions of titles are to be sorted, only a knowledge of these categorical differences will enable us to dispose them to the greatest advantage.

The selection of categories for the university library will depend first, as always, upon the objectives of the institution—the levels of teaching and research and the definition of central and marginal fields. Second, it will depend—and this is where we are most weak—upon the analysis of resources in those fields. The nature, extent, and uses of library resources vary widely from field to field. And third, it will depend upon such variables as cost, rarity, bulk, and durability. However desirable some resources might be, their acquisition by the individual library might never be practical. It is the second factor that needs our most urgent attention.

The analysis of resources by fields involves first the varying roles that books, journals, and other materials play in the service of scholarship. In some fields, particularly the physical sciences (except history of science), their role is reportorial—that is, they report, as well as summarize, teach, and popularize, the results of past research. In the historical disciplines, some materials are reportorial (the secondary sources) and others documentary (the primary sources). Reports of early investigations, including those in the physical sciences, may of course shift their role to the documentary in the history of the discipline. Then, in other fields, such as literature and the graphic arts, library resources play a third role in addition to the reportorial and the documentary. This might be called the substantive, in that books in their own right are themselves the subjects of study—the novel, the poem, the illustration. And these may also shift their role to the documentary when used as historical evidence. Indeed, every book, regardless of its nature or initial purpose, eventually becomes part of the retrospective documentation of its time.

These functions are useful to the analysis of resources by date and place of publication, physical form, authorship, or other characteristics. Date, for example, has different meanings in the reportorial and documentary functions. In the reportorial it suggests the timeliness of the information reported; in the documentary it indicates the period documented. In the substantive function, as in literature, authorship has a special, personalized significance which is largely lacking in the reportorial, where the objectivity of the data is more important. The journal, as a form of publication, plays a particularly significant reportorial role in the sciences.

Some data are already available from citation and other studies of use, such as those by Fussler,⁴ Stevens,⁵ McAnally,⁶ and Gosnell.⁷ These data in general suggest—and again I give credit to Fussler,⁸ who has thought deeply about these problems—that in some disciplines, particularly the experimental sciences, a relatively small selection of recent books and journals, well within the reach of most major universities, will satisfy a very high proportion of current research needs. Conversely, the satisfaction of the last few percentage points of need will require extremely large collections, the great bulk of which will be used very infrequently, if at all. In the historical disciplines, however, this line is fuzzy, because use is more evenly spread throughout a larger proportion of the total literature, so large a proportion, in fact, that no university can hope to satisfy at home a very high percentage even of current need.

The great problem seems to reside in the documentary function, where obsolescence is low or absent, use is infrequent, and research is highly specialized. This is the problem of the library of permanent record, which strives to preserve at least one copy of virtually every piece of library material. Where retrospective coverage is the goal, selection is hardly possible. But selection for current local use is feasible from resources that serve the reportorial function, where obsolescence is higher and use is more heavily concentrated. This appears to be true in the historical as well as the experimental disciplines. And selection is surely possible from resources that serve the substantive function—that is, for example, from literary works.

I should expect that such analyses and interpretations, if sufficiently detailed and refined, would help to clarify the bases for increasing the selectivity of the university library, provided a suitable superstructure were created to cover the resources that were not selected. Here, then, is the second problem: the establishment of extra-university (or inter-university) agencies for the pooling of resources that are beyond the means of the individual libraries. A number of such agencies are, of course, already in existence, and my comments here will be limited to a few personal observations about their long-term adequacy.

These agencies, taken separately or together, should comprise a common reservoir that might be fed from at least four sources. First, it might absorb the withdrawals of less useful materials from individual libraries that practice "de-acquisition." Second, it might acquire directly the current production of some kinds of peripheral materials. Third, it might acquire directly many retrospective materials that have not yet found their way into the individual libraries. Included here might be such blocks of materials as the Wing or Evans titles when reproduced in micro-form. And fourth, it should be assigned other resources which for reasons of cost, bulk, durability, or the like cannot readily be handled by the individual library. Beyond these obvious sources, there are probably unfashionable fields in every period of scholarship, the resources for which, if they could be identified, could be appropriately pooled. In general, these extra- or inter-university agencies should be capable of stocking almost everything that ought to be preserved and kept available to all but which need not, or cannot, be stocked locally.

Traditionally the functions of this reservoir have been assumed by a few individual libraries, such as the Library of Congress, the New York Public Library, Harvard, and Yale, the combined resources of which have long supplemented those of other research libraries. Undoubtedly these libraries will continue in the future to perform those functions, but in lesser degree. Not even they can hold against the rising flood of print, nor should they be expected to bear alone what is truly a national or even an international responsibility. The Library of Congress, being under the federal aegis, might be an exception. Its national role could conceivably be very much extended.

To spread this responsibility for national coverage more equitably, the research libraries of the country are now engaged in programs of special-

ization by subject fields, notably the Farmington Plan. This type of superstructure appears to be useful as a supplement to the existing structure but inadequate as a long-term solution to the problem of exponential growth. By this method the university library, which is becoming more generally selective, would become less selective in the field of its specialty. Eventually, if pursued long enough, this imbalance would seriously distort the university collection, as the relatively unselected quantities of books in one field loom ever larger beside the regular collection. Also, the national distribution of resources would in time bear less and less relationship to the distribution of need. Increasing proportions of the resources needed by one university would be scattered among the others, without benefit of any direct method of centralized access. There is the further likelihood that the program of some universities might change in such degree as to render their own specialties of little use to themselves. Then, we may note a suggestion by Rolland Stevens that the separation of "fringe" from "core" materials often does not follow subject lines.⁹ However useful a systematic plan of subject specialization may be for limited purposes, the solution of the long-term problem will, I expect, have to rest on other methods.

Another type of superstructure that might help to do the job is exemplified by the Midwest Inter-Library Center. This embryonic library's library of record has, I understand, already experimented with all the sources of acquisition noted above. It does acquire for the region some kinds of current peripheral materials, such as government documents and foreign newspapers. It does store fringe materials withdrawn from the participating libraries—college catalogs, textbooks, and the like. It does acquire blocks of retrospective materials that are not widely available—the Evans microtexts, for example—and files that are unusually costly or bulky. It is, moreover, capable of great expansion as an organizational device. It can supplement without distorting the individual library, and it does not scatter fringe materials by subjects. Its clear long-term goal could well be the full coverage of marginal resources for libraries that are resigned to a future policy of greater selectivity. It is a new general book stack, one step further removed from the department library and the scholar's private library.

The MILC is, however, regional. If it were the true prototype, then similar centers should be anticipated in other regions. Yet similar conditions do not appear to exist in other regions, nor is it clear that they ever will. The resources of the Far West, for example, are strung out in a line 1500 miles long. The quest of research materials, moreover, is typically national, or even international, in scope, not regional. Even the MILC recognizes this fact in its support of the national union catalog, as against a regional catalog, and in its administration of the foreign newspaper microfilm project, which includes libraries throughout the country. We may also note that the collections at MILC, like those at the New England Deposit Library, are so little used that they might well be sufficient for the whole country, possibly for the whole world. This suggests that such a center, at least while it is still small, could perhaps be more amply financed

and more fully exploited if organized on a national base. Yet if a national inter-library center were to exist, why should it not be the Library of Congress, with federal subsidy? I do not know. It does seem clear, though, that the functions adopted by the MILC are precisely those that would in the long run enable the university library to rationalize its local acquisitional policy on a more selective basis and yet insure the coverage that is required especially by the historical disciplines.

A serious problem of such a center, as exemplified by the MILC, still seems, however, to be the reluctance of some librarians, or their faculty constituents, to transfer the necessary degree of responsibility and loyalty to the center.¹⁰ While acknowledging intellectually the paradox of their situation, they nevertheless still do not, or cannot, modify their local acquisitional policy to fit the broader context. Perhaps the pressures upon them are not yet severe enough; perhaps the illusion still persists that everything needed can still be had at home. If so, time will take care of that. The transition has barely begun. Even if nothing of importance is transferred from the existing collections to any center, the centers will grow from new acquisitions; they will increase by absorbing larger proportions of the materials that the individual libraries cannot acquire in the future. The transition might eventually be achieved through inundation by resources not yet created. Remember, we are looking toward not only the next twenty years of growth but also the next forty, eighty, one hundred sixty, and so on. In American librarianship, the past is short; the future, we hope, will be very much longer.

Even now, I should think that an inter-library center would offer a practical alternative to the local selection or discard of doubtful materials. As long as the university stands alone, each librarian makes unilateral decisions about books that are presented for possible acquisition. There are exceptions, of course, but mostly each librarian independently preserves or commits to oblivion whatever books come to hand. The center, however, offers the alternative of rejecting a book locally and still preserving it by committing it to the center, with a reasonable degree of accessibility to the rejecting library. This degree of accessibility now promises to be greatly increased by xerographic reproduction of texts from microfilm. If one copy of a book is available at a suitable library center, any university in the country will be able in the future to get a reproduction at reasonable cost at any time the need actually arises. Acquisition for the improbable or unlikely need can in the future be deferred until that need becomes likely or certain, if ever. The negative choice becomes practical at the local level when the positive choice may follow later without penalty. Indeed, "deferred acquisition" may actually be the key to greater, acceptable selectivity at the local level. But such selectivity depends upon the evolution of a comprehensive collection elsewhere. Contraction at one point relies upon expansion at another.

The progressive specialization and interdependence of fields, and the pooling of resources, lead inevitably to broader bases of organization—unless, of course, some technological development changes our perspective

of the disposition of resources. The full realization of the inter-library center will undoubtedly depend upon the invention of devices that are more effective than the camera in reproducing materials and faster than the mails in transmitting them from place to place. The possibilities of electronic reproduction and transmission suggest that distance, as a deterrent to inter-library centers, might some time be largely removed. I shall not elaborate upon this possibility, except to point out that our faculties would still probably hang the library—and I mean our present university library—if by some miracle of technology the full coverage of their fields could again be restored to their private studies—if, having come full circle, we could cut through all these organizational strata, these stages of accessibility, and the scholar could again retire to the convenience of his own armchair. Let us not count too much upon the loyalty of our faculties even to the university library, let alone to an inter-library center. All these loyalties are born first of necessity and then perpetuated by habit; there is nothing natural about any of them.

Meanwhile, the status of resources in the university library is still too much and too little—too much for understanding, too little for research. The librarian is still torn between constraint in the molding of a library that responds effectively to local institutional needs and the impulsion to stock everything for any possible investigation. The problems of library service, like those of research itself, have outgrown the university as an independent organizational base. To be selective at home, as I believe we must, and yet to insure the full coverage required by research, as I believe we also must, requires the pooling of some resources at an extra-university level. The issue is not selectivity *versus* coverage; it is selectivity *plus* coverage.

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The Search for a Utopia of Acquisitions and Resources*

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ONE OF Utopia's attractions as a subject is that it can be approached without any particular preparation; ignorance may even be an advantage rather than a handicap. Plato, for example, was memorably successful in this field, yet he had little training in the sciences, he presumably was unacquainted with any language or literature save his own, and he knew nothing at all of medieval or modern history.

Research was not required; but habits are hard to give up, and it would have seemed immoral, regardless of how reasonable it was, to write or speak without first consulting the bound volumes of *Library Literature*, reading or re-reading an article or two, and browsing a little on appropriate shelves in the stacks. As an excuse for indulgence in this ritual, there was at least a possibility that it might be desirable to glance at the past. Could it safely be taken for granted, after all, that a Utopia of any kind, even a Utopia of acquisitions and resources, might not lie in the past rather than somewhere else? Though faith in progress may have passed its peak, most librarians would probably assume that the past is not a promising area in which to search for a library Utopia. There have been periods, however, when it was common knowledge that the golden age lay in that direction.

It would not do to suggest that a golden age of acquisitions and resources could be found by going back to a time when research and library collections for research were so insignificant that no one regarded them as problems. But it may be fair to go back about a century to see if anything resembling a Utopia was in sight at that time.

One hundred and one years ago today, on July 16, 1857, the Harvard Alumni Association, at its annual meeting, appointed a committee "to take into consideration the state of the College Library." John Langdon Sibley, who was then Librarian of Harvard College, wrote a letter to this Committee; it was printed, evidently for distribution to the Alumni, and it is interesting. Sibley called the library a "reservoir from which all minds at the university are mainly to be supplied," and he stated flatly that "No

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limits can be set to its wants."¹ Perhaps there was something Utopian about an age when a librarian could be as honest as this.

Today Harvard is bold enough to campaign only for an additional fifteen million dollars for its College Library. And today Harvard's librarians would not dare to issue an invitation like Sibley's—"I think it would be well," he wrote, "if it were generally known that there was never anything printed of which we should not be grateful for one copy."² His letter was primarily an appeal to the Alumni for gifts of library materials, and the limitless appetite of the collection was emphasized again at the conclusion: "I hope no one will be deterred from contributing whatever his inclinations and abilities may prompt, however small it may be, and however unimportant it may seem, remembering that not a book or pamphlet has ever been printed, of which it is not desirable to have one copy in the library."³

Sibley was consistent. In his diary he once wrote, "Let the library be filled. If trash comes let it come. What is trash to me may be the part of the Library which will be the most valuable to another person."⁴ Experience did not force him to retreat; in 1874, toward the close of his career, he affirmed that "There ought to be in existence a copy of everything which is printed."⁵

Justin Winsor, the first president of the American Library Association, was Sibley's successor at Harvard; his view was similar—"Nothing that is printed, no matter how trivial at the time, but may be some day in demand, and, viewed in some relations, helpful to significant results. Therefore . . . the librarian feels the necessity of preserving all he can."⁶ As late as 1890, Paul Leicester Ford was quoted in the *Library Journal* as declaring that, "In every city there should be one library which should preserve everything, without the slightest regard to its apparent value or the current demand. . . ."⁷

Was it Utopia when statements like this did not seem ridiculous? There have been bold and ambitious planners during recent years, but they usually have hedged at least a little. Luther Evans said, in 1946, "I hardly think you will require much evidence that almost everything published anywhere in the world should be available in at least *one* American library."⁸ An *almost* is to be found there before the *everything*, it should be noted. Moreover, he was not suggesting that this job be done by a library in every city or by the Harvard Library or even by the Library of Congress; he was advocating a cooperative effort.

This meeting's Chairman, Ralph Esterquest, has been less cautious than Luther Evans; he declared, only a year ago, that "We ought to take steps to guarantee that a book which might be needed some time in the future is going to be found in some library somewhere, instead of relying on chance."⁹ It will be necessary a little later to expose some of the shocking implications of this program, but the statement is quoted at this point only to support the generalization that comprehensive insurance in the field of resources, when it comes on the market today, is based on cooperation.

Most observers during recent years seem to have believed, like Messrs. Evans and Esterquest, that specialization by libraries is the procedure that will make it possible to preserve almost everything—or, at least, to preserve a great deal more than can be preserved if libraries do not specialize. Cooperative achievements in lending, filming, and listing have seemed to promise that the scholar will be able to locate the materials he wants and use them if they have been acquired by any American library.

Indeed, librarians were told by Donald Coney in 1949 that "Whether we like it or not, we are well on the road toward the socialization of library holdings."¹⁰ "The librarian," Winsor said, "feels the necessity of preserving all he can." It has long been obvious that coordination of collecting could considerably increase the total that is preserved by libraries, yet relatively little coordination has been achieved. Surprise or disappointment has been expressed repeatedly because so little has been done to socialize collection-building in spite of all that has been accomplished toward socializing the use of library collections.

An analogy may suggest one partial explanation for this. Lending is one thing—a generous man may be glad to lend his car to a neighbor who needs it, and may readily agree to a plan for cooperative use of resources by means of a car-pool. But acquisition is a different matter. Resentment might be aroused in the most generous and cooperative of men if his neighbors tried to tell him what make of car, and what model, and what color to buy.

It might even be argued that libraries have cooperated so well and so generously in use of materials that they have destroyed some of the selfish considerations that might have been inducements to coordinated collection-building. Books acquired under the Farmington Plan are lent to any institution that asks for them; borrowing is not restricted to libraries that have borne the expense and inconvenience of participation in the Plan. Resources of the Midwest Inter-Library Center benefit scholars of non-member institutions in the region and throughout the nation. The Plan and the Center demonstrate that library cooperation in acquisition on a voluntary basis is not impossible; but there may be limits. Voluntary participation does not pave highways or maintain metropolitan fire departments, and it may turn out that no very expensive plan for library resources can be built on this basis.

Still, in spite of any disappointments or doubts, libraries have moved a little way toward specialization. There is a Farmington Plan, and something better can be anticipated after Messrs. Vosper and Talmadge have completed their study of it. There is a stock of collectively owned microfilms of foreign newspapers. If librarians think that almost everything—or as much as possible—ought to be preserved, and that cooperation may enable them to do their duty, they need not give up. Possibly this is as close to Utopia as librarians will ever get.

But it would be unimaginative to offer the present as Utopia, even if one were prepared to demonstrate that this is the best of all possible worlds. Utopia need not be possible; its financial arrangements, at least,

need not be worked out in detail. If methods of paying for them do not have to be entirely plausible, it should not be hard to suggest a few improvements.

In fact, once an assumption or two has been accepted regarding the sort of objectives that are desirable, it is easy to imagine machinery for moving toward them. Perhaps it is too easy to be very interesting. What is simpler than paper plans for world-wide coverage by procurement agents and for distribution on a subject basis to participating libraries? If storage on a vast scale is entailed, why not lunar storage? The Moon would seem to be an admirable location for warehouses filled with infrequently-used materials, and it is not very promising for most other purposes.

Before leaving the earth, however, it might be desirable to try to make sure that the assumptions behind the trip are sound rather than specious. One assumption—and one that often helps to support the conviction that libraries ought to preserve everything or almost everything—is that the purpose of research libraries is to serve scholars. It would not be good public relations to argue that the purpose of libraries is to make librarians happy or to build their characters, so no subversive doubts on this point will be suggested here. Still, the policy of preserving everything might ultimately produce a situation in which the librarians would outnumber the scholars. At that hypothetical time it might be possible to maintain that the interests of librarians, as the more numerous group, ought to take precedence.

In the meanwhile, librarians will continue to hope that what is good for scholarship is also good for libraries. But it is not at all clear how librarians ought to go about determining what is good for the scholar. Does he know? If the scholar is asked what he wants, can his answers be believed? Motivation research has demonstrated that people commonly conceal and rationalize their real desires. As Vance Packard has explained, "you can't assume people will tell you the truth about their wants and dislikes even if they know them. What you are more likely to get . . . are answers that will protect the informants in their steadfast endeavor to appear to the world as really sensible, intelligent, rational beings. One management consulting firm has concluded that accepting the word of a customer as to what he wants is 'the least reliable index the manufacturer can have on what he ought to do to win customers.'"¹¹ The scholar, surely, is more skillful at such concealment and rationalization than the ordinary consumer.

The author of *The Hidden Persuaders* takes the strange view that it is somehow immoral to make use of what can be discovered regarding what people really want and why they behave as they do. Librarians, who are engaged in the preservation and dissemination of knowledge, ought to feel no qualms of this sort. If they can, surely librarians ought to find out what scholars really want, and act accordingly.

The scholar is almost sure to say—and probably to believe—that he wants more material than he has. Further questions are conceivable. If there were as voluminous records of the consulship of Julius Caesar as

there are of the administration of Harry Truman, would professors of ancient history be happier than they are? Would anyone—or society generally—be better off? How?

To answer such questions is to imply that the answers may not be known already, and to suggest that any librarian does not already know the answers may be to impugn his loyalty to the profession. No time, therefore, will be wasted here on answers; but the mention of records suggests another assumption—the assumption of many librarians that their problem consists almost entirely of the *printed* record of civilization. If it should turn out that this emphasis on print is a prejudice that ought to be outgrown, major changes in thinking and practice might be entailed.

Even a century ago, no one was seriously advocating that libraries try to preserve every manuscript. There is no magic about the ordinary manuscript—one is produced every time anybody uses a pen or pencil. Even when literacy was relatively rare, the manuscript does not seem to have inspired attempts to collect everything. Printing, however, was a special process, requiring elaborate machinery and skilled craftsmen. “Getting into print” still has its significance. A typewriter that can produce copy closely resembling print can command a higher price than an ordinary one. Most authors, including librarian-authors, prefer to have their own writings reproduced by printing rather than by any other method.

Collectors, moreover, tend to concentrate their efforts on a chosen category or sub-category in which they can strive toward completeness. Printing has offered librarians a category of graphic materials on which to concentrate, and they have felt, as many collectors do, that the ideal achievement would be a complete collection.

If most things that are printed are likely to be useful to scholars, and if most writings possessing research value are likely to be printed, then obviously it is reasonable for librarians to continue to concentrate on collecting printed materials. Perhaps, however, more and more is being printed that has only minimal research value, more and more graphic records of research significance are being produced that do not get into print, and production of material in the growing borderline area between manuscript and print is increasing at an enormous rate. Thanks to photographic techniques, any manuscript can now be reproduced exactly and inexpensively whenever it is needed, so the manuscript is no longer, for research purposes, what it used to be. Thanks to wood-pulp paper, printed books can no longer be trusted to remain on library shelves for centuries if given decent care. Instead, they will have to be photographed if their content is to be preserved, and this suggests that they be re-appraised before they are reproduced.

When a collection had been acquired and cataloged and shelved, the librarian used to be able to regard the transaction as completed; the books would be there for coming generations. Now he knows that many of them may have to be filmed and that the collection may be weeded from time to time as an increasing percentage of the library's total stock is consigned to storage.

Further reasons for questioning venerable assumptions might be offered by the many new forms in which information can be preserved; the spoken word can now be stored, so written language, whether in manuscript or print, no longer has the monopoly on durability that it once had. If this is true, if selection and acquisition, even in the most comprehensive research collection, no longer mean what they once did, and if printing does not now have the significance it had for Sibley or Winsor, then times have changed indeed and librarians may have to give up the assumption that the printed segment of civilization's record deserves nearly all their attention.

In a perspective that takes account of all portions of the total record that are available or could be made available, the Farmington Plan may seem to involve a bit so small that it is hardly visible. It has attempted to cover only monographs (not serials) in the book trade in some parts of the world. As Verner Clapp has said, "Perhaps one of the most important aspects of the Farmington Plan itself is that it is a continual reminder how far we are from collecting 'everything.'"¹²

A few short steps have been taken, by means of the Farmington Plan and other procedures, toward specialization and a planned increase of collective resources. There are obvious possibilities for a few more steps. The Federal Government might help. If there have been land-grant colleges, why not book-grant libraries, with a certain portion of their acquisitions subsidized on the ground that they are in the national interest? Appropriations might be stimulated, presumably, by evidence that American research libraries are not keeping up with Russian institutions.

A modest librarian might be content if American libraries were progressing as rapidly as American roads. A map showing paved highways in the United States as of 1958 would have seemed a Utopian document indeed to the motorist of fifty years ago. This road system has had the benefit of some national coordination and of federal aid to an extent that may seem enormous by library standards, but it can hardly be called the realization of a long-range and comprehensive plan. If a contractor in the road-construction business had advocated, in 1908, that this highway network be built because it would eventually be needed, he would not have convinced many people; moreover, it is doubtful that the best plan that could possibly have been made in 1908 would have located roads where they would be needed in 1958. Building up vast library resources that may be needed someday is not a completely different proposition. To be sure, some of the library materials now available will no longer exist in 2008 if they are not now added to our collections. It does not follow, however, that their disappearance will create a shortage of research materials.

Growth in response to needs, with relatively little planning and coordination, will not meet some standards for Utopia. The Chairman's outline for today's program called for a paper on acquisitions dealing with a national plan for "complete coverage, by means of Farmington Plan type schemes covering all current literature and reaching to libraries of all types." His idea of Utopia, as he said last year, evidently is "to guarantee

that a book which might be needed some time in the future is going to be found in some library somewhere, instead of relying on chance."

There are those who do not share his distaste for chance. Chance, they suspect, has done more for scholarship than it has for Reno or Las Vegas. Security is promised by the big plan. Togetherness is its basis. These may be in fashion, but they are somewhat confining objectives. Scholarship, perhaps, is more adventurous.

Does the Farmington Plan promise—or threaten—to lead to a Utopia of coordination? Small as it is, presumably it might prove to be a little acorn—or the nose of a Utopian camel finding its way into the tent of librarianship.

Such hopes or fears seem to have little justification. It has been pointed out that librarians, at least until they outnumber those who use their libraries, must give the impression that their purpose is to serve the needs of scholars. It follows that the foundation of any comprehensive plan for library specialization would have to be a plan for specialization by university faculties. If the scholars were sorted out and assigned to universities under a national plan for specialization in research—with precautions, of course, to make sure that they stayed put—library specialization would take care of itself because it would be the logical means of supplying the materials needed.

This sort of Utopia does not seem entirely American and the United States would not seem to offer a favorable environment in which to develop it. But this is what it would mean to establish a plan that would guarantee results. Chance can be eliminated from the world of research materials if scholars are told what is worth doing, and when to do it, and where. A comprehensive plan for resources entails a comprehensive plan for scholarship. The loss to scholarship that results from incomplete provision of library resources may seem insignificant in comparison with the loss that would result from confinement of scholarship to an effective plan.

There is little evidence, fortunately, that anything of the sort is likely to happen here. Quite a different kind of Utopia is coming, if statistics are to be trusted. Both leisure time and education are becoming increasingly prevalent. What will happen when most Americans become part-time scholars to the extent that they are now part-time motorists? Will librarians then need to worry about whether or not enough of civilization's record is being preserved? Will they then have time to worry?

When scholarship becomes the avocation of most citizens, it will, of course, be the full-time occupation of millions. Librarians have worried and written at some length because statistics show that research libraries have tended to double in size every sixteen to twenty years. But the number of doctorates granted by American universities has tended to double at a considerably faster pace than this—approximately every ten years. This Utopia, therefore, is guaranteed by the geometrical progression, of which so much has been heard in the field of library growth.

There seem to be no serious technical obstacles to making the materials of research available to the masses. Will Utopia have arrived when the

microfilm reading machines outnumber the television sets? To regard the prospect as ridiculously improbable is to assume that the tastes and inclinations now responsible for leading a few thousand individuals into scholarship are completely foreign to the millions who are not scholars—not yet. Such an assumption would be snobbish indeed.

This Utopia will contain millions of anarchic scholars, who will produce—as well as use—mountains of research materials. Each of the scholars will be collecting and helping his library to collect; there will be competition and diversity and confusion, as at present, but much more than at present. Little Farmington Plans will not succeed in collecting everything, and chance will continue to have a part in determining what survives. There will be uncertainty; but a librarian ought to find the atmosphere stimulating. The Louisiana statesman who is now enshrined in the National Statuary Hall gave currency to the slogan, "Every man a king!" A king? That is no longer good enough. We glimpse a brighter new world than his—*Every man a scholar!*

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Editor Recommends: The April-May, 1958 issue of *The Librarian and Book World* features the handling of special materials—with a most practical approach.

The Miraculous Bubble: A Look at Kalfax Microfilm

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KALFAX Microfilm is more than a useful tool. It presents an intriguing new process which is linked closely to one of the most significant developments of this era, the synthetic giant molecule. Since there will be much comment on Kalfax Microfilm in the near future, it seemed reasonable to incorporate into this article a brief technical description to facilitate a complete understanding of this process, and to enable the librarian to distinguish fact from fiction in the arguments to come.

What Is Kalfax Microfilm?

Kalfax Microfilm is a film intended for microfilm duplication. It is a material which produces a positive copy from a negative film, or vice versa, at the rate of 20 feet per minute. The film may be handled freely in ordinary room light, and processing involves neither chemicals nor gas. It is thus possible to make copy films from negative masters instantly and without the use of a darkroom. Kalfax film is as yet too slow to be used directly in the camera.

Kalfax Microfilm can play an important part in systems of documentary reproduction involving microfilm, and there is a constant growth in the number of such systems. It is true that progress in the utilization of microphotography by libraries has been impeded by a lack of standards and of systems, but further work on those two problems will enable us to realize more fully the benefits of the excellent technical progress made in this field in the last twenty years.

History of Kalfax Microfilm

Polymer chemistry, which has produced nylon, polyethylene and other synthetic plastics, is indirectly responsible for the advent of the family of Kalvar films which includes Kalfax Microfilm. It might be said therefore that the origins of this process go back to the beginning of this century and to the inquiries of Emil Fischer of Berlin, who has been called the spiritual father of high polymer chemistry.¹ In the 1920's research activities in the field of polymer chemistry grew rapidly, but we are still only at the beginning of our understanding in this field. New "high" and "super-high" polymers will probably revolutionize in a short span of time the materials

1. Mark, H. F. "Giant Molecules," *Scientific American*, 197:81-89. Sept. 1957.

employed for our utensils, our furniture and our housing. With Kalfax film the impact of the plastics revolution is felt in photography.

Nine years ago, Alfred J. Moran of Thomas J. Moran's Sons Inc., sought to develop a new printing plate. His research project involved experiments which produced Kalvar film, and at this junction the project changed direction and led to the founding of a new company called the Kalvar Corporation of New Orleans, and to the development of Kalfax Microfilm. Early research on this new medium was done by Dr. Robert Nieset at Tulane University. Arthur D. Little Company in Cambridge also played a part in the early development of the film. Since then many others have contributed.

The first user of Kalfax Microfilm was the U. S. Department of Defense. The next step was the installation of a Kalfax printer-processor at the Microreproduction Laboratory of MIT, which preceded other library or commercial adoption of Kalfax. All information contained in this article is the result of the author's experience with this medium at MIT.

Description of Process and Equipment

The film consists of a base and an emulsion. The base is made of mylar, which is three mil thick and extremely tough, impossible to tear by hand. The emulsion has sometimes been called a photo-sensitive plastic, and this is not quite correct. It consists of a high-polymer plastic which contains scattered through it particles of a light-sensitive diazo compound. The plastic itself is *not* light-sensitive. A closer look at the plastic reveals it to be of the amorphous-crystalline variety. This means that the plastic is constructed in part of crystallites which are arranged in a haphazard manner. In its basic form the plastic is completely transparent. The diazo compound which is dispersed in the plastic is sensitive to light in the near ultraviolet region of the spectrum. The sensitivity of Kalfax Microfilm is at present quite similar to that of Ozalid film. On exposure to the proper light source, the suspended diazo particles in Kalfax Microfilm are decomposed into a dye residue and a gas. The number of faintly visible gas bubbles formed in any one area of the film is in direct proportion to the amount of light received. Each of the gas bubbles sets up a minute pressure center in the plastic. The film is then developed by heat, preferably at about 255° Fahrenheit. (Kalfax Microfilm may be processed at other temperatures, but the resulting film may not be quite as stable as the film processed at 255° F.) The heating process softens the emulsion and allows each pressure center to reconstruct the plastic in its immediate vicinity. Small bubbles are thus formed which have a shell of rearranged crystallites. From this point on the diazo compound plays no further part in the make-up of the completed image. This is *not* a dye image, not even in part. The image is visible because the tiny bubbles formed by the crystallites scatter the light which strikes them. An image on silver film looks black regardless of whether we view the image by reflected or by transmitted light, because light is absorbed by the silver image. Kalvar film is the first photographic medium to employ *light scattering* instead of *light absorption*. Much of the

light incident on Kalfax film is reflected back in the general direction of the light source, and this explains why the Kalvar image looks almost white when viewed by reflected light. The projected image (as seen in the microfilm reader), which is essentially the shadow thrown by the bubbles, is of course black. One of the most important aspects of Kalvar film is the fact that the diazo compound is used only as a tool to achieve a final image entirely composed of plastic. In this respect it differs from Ozalid film which forms a dye image.

Production of Kalfax microfilm requires a special printer-processor (see ill.). The printer shown here was placed on the market in September 1958. All previous experimentation at MIT was done with the first model printer which was of good design but became obsolete in the light of new and different Kalfax Microfilm emulsions, and was not suited to large production. At the time this article is written the author is unable to give a complete critical evaluation of the new printer-processor. Suffice it to say that while the printer appears to be quite adequate for general production, this writer would like to see some further changes made in the design of any future model, if and when such new models are designed.

Kalfax film, like silver film, undergoes three processing stages: exposure, development and fixing. The first two stages are automatic. The negative film and the unexposed Kalfax film are put on their respective rollers on the printer, the machine is threaded, the light setting is adjusted in accordance with the density of the original film, and at the push of a button the copy film is produced. Kalfax film is sensitive to light in the near ultraviolet region, and may be handled for indefinite periods of time under ordinary room lighting conditions. After the film has been exposed, the Kalvar emulsion makes contact with a heated cylinder, the heat develops the film, and a visible image has been created.

There have been repeated published statements which claim that the film may be used without a further fixing process. This is not so if a permanent image is desired. Unless the film is fixed, it is extremely possible, and in fact likely, that the Kalfax film placed in any ordinary microfilm reader would darken after a few minutes in the reader. There is in most microfilm readers a sufficient amount of light of the spectral quality to which the film is sensitive, and enough heat engendered by the bulb, to cause fogging due to simultaneous exposure and processing. This darkening would not obliterate the image but it might impair legibility. On the basis of this writer's experience, it must be recommended that all film be fixed prior to use.

What does fixation of Kalvar film consist of? When a Kalfax positive has been made from a microfilm negative, the unexposed, clear sections of the positive have retained light-sensitive diazo compound. The heat development of the film did not sufficiently de-sensitize the unexposed portion. In order to fix the film, processing must be followed by a strong light exposure of the entire film, which should then be kept for a few hours at temperatures below 110° F. About 10 minutes after the exposure the gas which was formed as a result of the decomposition of the diazo compound

starts to diffuse out through the plastic, and after a few hours there is nothing left to form the bubbles. This means that the film must be developed immediately after exposure to create the image, and it also means that the film may be fixed by an all-over exposure in the printing section of the printer-processor at the special fixing speed of 5 feet per minute at the maximum light setting and subsequent protection of the film against heat for a few hours.

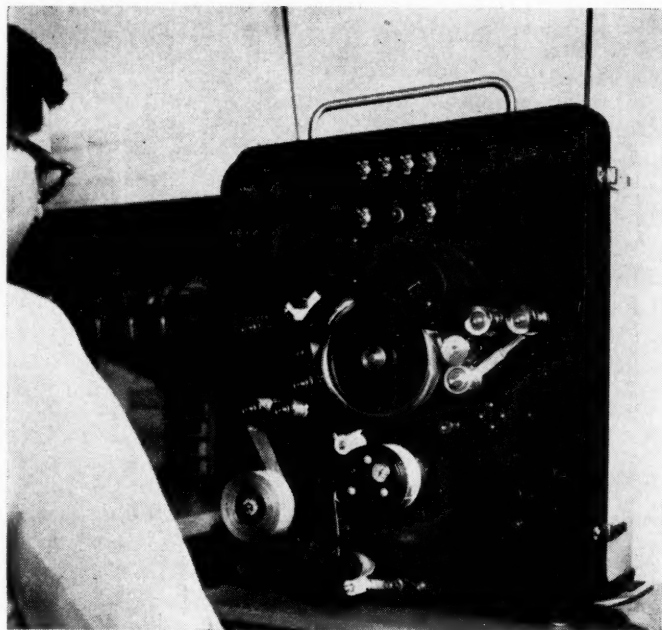


Fig. 1. Kalfax Printer-Processor

The author has made numerous tests to ascertain whether use of the film in standard readers immediately after fixing caused darkening. No darkening was observed on any occasion.

The currently available Kalfax Microfilm is the result of much testing of different emulsions. For a year the author experimented with films having different characteristics, and the film now marketed is suitable for all microfilm applications.

The printer-processor may be used for both 16mm and 35mm film. All tests at MIT were conducted with 35mm film, and in this application Kalfax film produced sharp, legible copies. Maximum resolution obtainable with Kalfax Microfilm and the new printer appears to be somewhat lower than that obtained with the best silver print film, but it is entirely adequate for all normal purposes.

The new printer-processor has a set printing speed of 20 feet per minute. However, since fixing of the film requires the machine to be run

separately and at a speed of 5 feet per minute, the total effective production speed is reduced to 4 feet per minute. This is unnecessarily slow, and it is to be hoped that future Kalfax film processors will be designed incorporating a fixing unit at the end of the processing cycle.

The Kalvar Corporation also intends to market a separate fixing unit which will run at 20 feet per minute. This unit is not as yet available. Whether or not the Kalfax film printer has a sufficient maximum light output to copy all types of microfilm which libraries are likely to encounter is a debatable question. It would have been preferable, in this writer's opinion, to have slightly more exposure energy in this printer. Certainly this machine is adequate to copy all microfilm of good quality, and that of mediocre quality, but unfortunately many libraries have holdings of somewhat substandard films, and there will be film with a line density too great to be copied conveniently on the new printer. Whether this consideration is a serious one will depend on the nature of each individual operation.

It might be of interest to mention that attempts have been made to use this film directly in the camera, and one experimental special camera was built for the sole purpose of microfilming with Kalvar film. It does not appear as if the film has the necessary speed at this time, or that the special camera is practical. Research on Kalvar film is proceeding, and not too long from now it may be possible to use this film directly in the camera.

Permanence of Kalfax Film

The Kalvar Corporation states that Kalfax Microfilm is stable under all normal conditions except under conditions of heat above 160° F. There is not as yet a comment on the permanence of Kalfax film by an independent authoritative research organization, and presumably there will be none until the film receives the attention of the National Bureau of Standards. On the basis of a superficial inquiry into the stability characteristics of polymers of this type, and after subjecting the film to a number of tests not including accelerated aging tests, this writer feels that this is indeed a film having stability characteristics equal to those of well-processed silver film, except, as previously mentioned, at temperatures above 160° F. It must be stated again, however, that this is the author's opinion, based on a relatively short period of testing. It is not to be taken as a conclusive endorsement of the claims made by the Kalvar Corporation with regard to the permanence of this film.

Unexposed Kalfax Microfilm may be stored for a minimum of several years without damage to the film. The material is also photographically inert to radiation which would fog unexposed silver film.

Economics of the Process

Comparison of the relative production costs of Kalfax film and silver print film requires analysis of the following expenses: Raw stock, equipment depreciation, labor, chemicals, and overhead. Most of these expenses

vary with the type of installation and the volume of work. No calculation can possibly be made which would be useful for more than a small percentage of all microfilm installations. However, here are some general figures:

The cost of Kalfax film raw stock is approximately 2¢ per foot greater than that of silver print film. Labor costs for Kalfax are extremely small since the printing-processing operation is almost completely mechanical. On labor alone many installations will save with Kalfax considerably more than the extra 2¢ per foot which was spent on the raw stock. The only major piece of equipment required for Kalfax film is the printer-processor which sells for \$1975.00, with a later addition probably of a separate fixing unit which is not yet available. The cost of the equipment for silver printing is much greater and involves wet processing equipment. However, such processing equipment may be needed for negative film production anyway, and this fact would of course enter into cost calculations. Chemicals are not used in the Kalfax operation, a saving in materials and labor. Overhead will be lower with Kalfax since the operation requires no darkroom, no plumbing, no special electrical installations, and very little space.

In other words: if it is possible to save more than 2¢ per foot on labor, chemicals, equipment depreciation and overhead by using Kalfax instead of silver film, then Kalfax is the cheaper medium, and vice versa. There is no doubt that the great majority of library installations would substantially reduce their microfilm duplication costs by producing Kalfax Microfilm in place of silver film.

Final Comments

There is a further aspect of Kalfax film which appears to have a tremendous potential. This is the use of sheet Kalvar film, called Kalvacards. Kalvacards are identical with Kalfax Microfilm but sheet film has been substituted for roll film. One experimental machine has been built which enables the user to transfer material from a roll of negative microfilm to Kalvacards. Printing and processing of images on a section of the Kalvacard does not de-sensitize the rest of the card, and this becomes a good medium for keeping records in microfilm since it is possible to add more data by contact printing from 16mm or 35mm negative film from time to time as necessary.

To sum up the advantages of Kalfax Microfilm: Negative microfilm holdings in the library may be reproduced and disseminated at very short notice, and without the use of darkroom facilities. By virtue of the mylar base, the film is virtually untearable. There is no possibility of accidentally leaving residual chemicals in the film as in the case of silver film, and thereby impairing the stability of the film. In all probability the film is as permanent (and possibly more permanent) as well-processed silver film, provided that it is processed at the recommended temperature and adequately fixed. The film is, of course, an entirely new medium, and its use does involve two things: 1), dependency on the production facilities of

one small company, the Kalvar Corporation, and 2), readiness on the part of the user to pioneer and venture into unknown territory. In the considered opinion of this writer these are risks well worth taking with Kalfax Microfilm.

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Acquiring Books from Abroad*

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IN THE total acquisitions program of American libraries, foreign materials play a small role compared with domestic imprints. From a cultural and scientific point of view the movement of books and journals across international borders is of greater significance than statistics indicate, because printed information affords scholars and readers the opportunity to participate in developments the world over regardless of the barriers of space, language, and borders. In our age of rapid scientific and technological advances, foreign materials, promptly obtained, properly organized, and intellectually assimilated, will help to eliminate duplication of research. The maximum use of foreign materials requires the existence and accessibility of bibliographies (subject and national) and elimination of censorship.

America's Position in the International Booktrade

In 1954 American publishers sold between \$570 and \$705 million worth of books, of which at least \$30 million went abroad. Three years later approximately \$920 million were sold and well over \$40 million purchased by foreign countries.^{1, 2} While the U.S.A. is one of the largest book producing countries in the monetary value of sales and possibly also in terms of copies sold, it does not hold this position in terms of total or

* Revision of a paper presented before the College Section of the Michigan Library Association as part of a symposium on book selection and acquisition, October 25, 1957, Detroit, Michigan.

per capita title production. In 1952, 11,840 titles were released in the United States disregarding the large quantity of federal, state, and local government publications which some other countries include in their statistics. During the same year (1952) five countries reported the following title production:

German Federal Republic	13,913
India (1950)	17,400
Japan	17,306
U.S.S.R.	37,500
United Kingdom	18,741

France and Italy, much smaller in population, published nearly as many titles as the U.S.A.³ In number of copies, the United States ranks third with 164 million, behind Russia (650 million) and the United Kingdom (286 million).³ A tabulation of title production per million of population for twenty-three countries places the U.S.A. nearly at the bottom of the list. Only China, India and Brazil rank lower.⁴

While our title production is comparatively low, we are one of the world's largest exporters of books and the second largest importer (after Canada) in dollar volume. In 1952, our imports amounted to 12.5 million dollars and had risen to 15.1 million dollars by 1957. Our largest suppliers include the United Kingdom, France, the Netherlands, the German Federal Republic, Spain, Switzerland, Italy, Japan, and Canada. The U.S.S.R. was 17th on the list in 1955, but imports from there had increased 50 percent over 1954.^{4, 5}

Types of Foreign Publications

Looking at books from the acquisition angle and disregarding qualitative considerations, published materials can be arranged according to availability and mode of publishing. With regard to availability the familiar designations of in-print and out-of-print apply to foreign as well as domestic books. Foreign books usually stay in print longer. In regard to the mode of publishing, it is better to disregard the terms monograph, serial, and periodical and think rather of one-shots and continuations. One-shots are publications issued in completeness between two covers at one time. Continuations are publications released in successive issues, parts, or volumes at regular or irregular intervals, intended to be completed or continued indefinitely, with or without schemes for consecutive numbering, and with or without author and/or distinctive title.

In-Print Materials—One-Shots

As a rule, foreign publishers and bookdealers do not grant library discounts. The economical way to order in-print one-shots is to segregate about two dozen individual orders for which one invoice is received which can be paid with a single check or draft and to order from either an exporter abroad or an importer in this country. The choice of using an exporter or an importer depends on the following factors: (1) established

business connections, (2) volume of orders, (3) bookkeeping and accounting practices, (4) availability of clerical personnel. The importer's services will generally be more expensive because he employs American help, pays import duties, and charges for mailing; while the exporter in case of quantity orders frequently absorbs mailing charges, has a lower overhead, and charges prices at current exchange rates. If the volume of business with a particular country is small, it is simpler to use an importer. If the institution's accounting practices are rigid and processing of foreign invoices causes great difficulties, one has to use an importer in spite of actual greater costs. It also has to be considered that ordering books from many different exporters requires more correspondence and the handling of a larger number of invoices. Importers act as jobbers and facilitate bookkeeping, but will not be in a position to grant discounts like the jobbers of American in-print materials.

All one-shots have to be ordered item by item unless one chooses to place standing orders for certain types of materials, like, let us say, Polish contemporary fiction. In this case, the library will receive more materials faster, but the function of book selection will have been delegated to the supplier. It is a safe conclusion that his basis of selection is not identical with that of the librarian, faculty member, or library patron. Continuous and careful checking of items obtained becomes necessary, and the return of undesired titles is time-consuming and expensive.

In-Print Materials—Continuations

Continuations should always be obtained on standing orders and should be segregated depending on the number of items ordered. If two or three dozen continuations are obtained from a single country, an exporter will do well unless the country is far away and mail service unreliable. In this case, an importer will be preferable. Otherwise, the same conditions apply as for one-shots.

Out-of-Print Materials—One-Shots and Continuations

Domestic out-of-print materials are usually obtained from the second-hand market which keeps in touch with libraries through dealers' catalogs. The basic axiom concerning out-of-print materials is that they can usually be obtained cheaper through catalogs than by the process of sending to dealers lists of desiderata. If the supplier knows that an item is in demand, he will usually ask for and get a higher price. Sending desiderata lists to only one dealer excludes competition, the only guarantee of a buyer for the establishment of a fair market price. Some librarians send identical desiderata lists to several dealers. If an item is fairly hard to get, this practice may jack up the price because the dealer who has the item may get at the same time invitations for quotations from the library buyer and several dealers who are searching for this item for the same customer. He will respond to the sudden interest by raising his price for the wanted publication.

It is advisable to send identical desiderata lists for foreign materials to an exporter in the country of origin of the publication and to an American importer. Unless an item is exceedingly rare, it is very unlikely that these two parties would cooperate to raise the price. Another method of obtaining out-of-print titles is by advertising for them in the pages of journals which are read by bookdealers. Advertising has the disadvantage of requiring separate funds which are usually not freely available or cause problems of allocation to specific titles eventually obtained.

An efficient tool for obtaining American and some British out-of-print items is *The American Antiquarian Booksellers Weekly (TAAB: The Library Bookseller)*.⁶ Its supporting customers are predominantly American secondhand dealers, and American libraries can list their desiderata in its pages free of charge. Very few non-English items are listed, and for this reason the establishment of a series of similar publications in foreign countries, particularly of the Romance language group would fill a very definite need.

Proposal for the Establishment of Foreign Desiderata Listings.

After correspondence and discussion with colleagues in acquisitions work I thought that steps should be taken to have a free listing service established in France, Italy, and Spain. These countries seemed most significant for the following reasons: (1) The second hand book trade there is not very well developed and organized. (2) These countries have a long history and cultural background, and older books are of considerable significance to Western Civilization. (3) They have geographical and cultural cohesion and are disposed to be friendly toward the U.S.A. No political barriers would be encountered in such a plan, and their economic thinking follows along our own lines. *TAAB*-like journals could be published by the local bookdealers' associations and financed through subscriptions to dealers; listings of desiderata would be accepted free of charge. Such a service would give librarians and bookbuyers the advantage of getting competitive quotations and would eliminate wasteful and time-consuming correspondence with several suppliers. Sellers and buyers would enter into mutually profitable business arrangements, and American know-how and possible initial financial assistance would facilitate the flow of information across national borders.

In order to get this project into operation three questions had to be answered: (1) whether such publications do not already exist; (2) whether the library profession would be interested in such a service; (3) how this plan could be carried out.

In answer to a query, four of our largest university libraries stated that they did not know of any publication carrying desiderata listings. At the reading of this paper approximately one hundred librarians were asked whether they favored such a publication. Between two-thirds and three-quarters expressed their approval. Sister M. Claudia, the presiding officer, forwarded a recommendation to this effect to Rolland Stevens, Chairman, Acquisitions Section, RTSD, ALA. During the Midwinter Meeting the

Foreign Desiderata Publications Committee was established. Composed of Helen M. Welch (University of Illinois), James E. Skipper (Michigan State University) and myself, the Committee decided on the following program: (1) to ascertain definitely the existence of exclusive desiderata publications in France, Italy and Spain; (2) to contact book dealer associations regarding their interest, willingness to cooperate, and financial resources for this project; (3) to estimate the minimum cost of such a publication for a one year trial run; (4) to submit a summary report to the Acquisitions Section, RTSD, and possibly request minimal financial assistance to bring the Committee's work to a successful conclusion.

Since these projected publications are to be supported through subscription of second-hand dealers in the three countries, they are expected to operate after their establishment on their own.

After the completion of this project, similar journals could be inaugurated in other problem areas of foreign acquisitions, such as Central and South America and the Near East. Solutions to the complexity of acquisitions in the USSR and her earthly satellites will have to wait for a clarification of the political situation.

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A Study on Long Term Periodical Subscriptions

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THE COMMITTEE on Long Term Periodical Subscriptions was organized for the purpose of securing a wider adoption of extended periods and rates to periodical orders in the interests of economy for the publisher, subscription agency, and the library. A principal reason for publishing this study is to illustrate the advantages and savings involved in placing subscriptions on a long term basis. The thought is that this in-

formation will be persuasive in removing barriers to long term subscriptions where such obstacles are imposed by state and local bodies.

Library administrators as well as municipal, state and federal purchasing agents expressed definite interest in payments over an extended term because of the opportunity which such payments afford for savings. Although the extent to which institutional subscribers now use long term orders is indeterminate, the evidence supplied by subscription agencies is that more and more libraries are converting to orders of this type. Even though some have taken advantage of existing long term subscription offers and individual libraries do solicit term orders from publishers, this present effort is the first known collective action apprising librarians of the existing situation and encouraging the adoption of such a program. Long term throughout this report is accepted to mean three years unless otherwise specified. This is the maximum period for prevailing subscription offers, and it appears a reasonable time limit over which to expect a publisher to project and guarantee his cost-of-production based price. There is motivation for the publisher, even though the percentage of renewals on the part of institutional subscribers is high, to reduce the cost involved in sending out bills and follow-up notices, cashing checks, crediting accounts, and all the other operations pertinent to a business office. The paper work involved in an annual renewal program becomes increasingly expensive in every office concerned.

The thought at the outset was to prepare a study analyzing and demonstrating the savings realized in terms of clerical operations and in money where subscriptions longer than one year now are employed. It was felt that a study of this sort would be particularly useful for libraries not now permitted to place multiple year orders, in the sense that it would provide a strong case for more liberal regulations on fund-use beyond deliveries made within the current year. The demonstrations of fact, in this text and in the impressive list of general interest titles now available for extended time orders, are offered for presentation to comptrollers and appropriation committees, since in most cases the decision rests beyond the immediate control of library officials. Fiscal and regulatory restrictions in this area are common in type, but vary infinitely in the detail of local situations and local interpretations. The task remains for the librarian, once he comes to realize the advantages, to work for the desired changes. This brief study, along with locally prepared supplements, should serve as evidence to fiscal guardians of the wisdom of permissive rulings to liberalize existing regulations. The evidence is clear that subscription orders on a term longer than one year will work to a distinct budgetary advantage.

The chart presents the results of studies conducted in several cooperating libraries. The core elements are: (a) the actual number of titles presently subscribed on a long term basis, (b) annual savings on renewal operations within the library, (c) annual savings on rates, (d) the total annual savings. Two further elements, (e) extent of the total periodicals program, and (f) the annual budget for periodicals, are listed for their importance in illustrating the potential economy.

Survey Reports of Individual Libraries

Reporting libraries	1*	2	3	4	5	6
(a) Titles subscribed long term (two year term)	32	408	320	408	311	255 (155)
(b) Annual savings on renewal (two year term)	\$4.20	\$81.60	\$283.72	\$191.00	\$155.50	\$38.06 (\$17.31)
(c) Annual savings in rates (two year term)	\$26.06	\$212.92	\$137.73	\$1,077.72	—	\$263.05 (\$86.05)
(d) Total annual savings (two year term)	\$30.26	\$294.52	\$421.45	\$1,268.72	—	\$301.11 (\$103.36)
(e) Total periodicals list	1,250	6,128	4,800	10,000	568	—
(f) Total periodicals budget	\$4,937	\$34,250	\$45,000	\$76,490	—	—

*1. Newberry 2. University of Chicago 3. John Crerar 4. University of Michigan
5. Indiana State Teachers College 6. University of California

A saving on internal costs is reported clearly in all cases under the legend annual savings on renewals. The base-figures, of 20¢ at Newberry, 22¢ at California, 30¢ at Chicago, 70¢ at Michigan, 75¢ at Indiana State, and \$1.33 at John Crerar, are startling when compared. The difference is striking, but the libraries worked independently in estimating the per title cost, and a comparison of library routines is not the intent of the study. Variation at this point is expected since renewal cost figures depend upon the elements considered and upon procedures within the individual institutions.

Two examples serve as illustration. The University of California reports the factors taken into consideration as: 3 minutes to approve bill (Library Assistant, \$1.66 hourly rate); 45 seconds to verifax (Library Assistant, \$1.66 hourly rate); .3 of a minute for Accounts Department processing (Senior Accounting clerk, \$1.66 hourly rate) and 1.06 minutes for the signature review (Librarian 3, \$3.06 hourly rate). The University of Michigan did not include administrative or overhead costs but considered the following elements: open invoice, locate subscription card, record payment thereon, code invoice for proper account, refile subscription card, prepare amalgamated payment card for accountant, record payment by account, process mark invoice, forward invoice to University Business Office, write check, debit library fund, return invoice to library, and file invoice. Admittedly the internal cost estimate resulting from a melange of clerical scales, postage rates and local practices make it necessary to derive the figure locally. Logging of each successive step in the total operation, along with computations at the prevailing local costs, will reveal the facts leading to a reasonably accurate cost-base. This technique of analysis is recommended, since the charting of measurable operations can well result

in the elimination of superfluous steps or the correction of existing time lags. Michigan estimated a potential saving of \$7,000 in staff time over a three year period under a long term renewal plan since approximately \$3,500 is spent each year in renewing domestic subscriptions for one year. Thus cost savings based solely on internal operations appear substantial enough to warrant adoption of long term subscriptions as library policy.

In addition to the demonstration to libraries of the potential advantages in adopting the long term period, the Committee discussed with publishers the offering of more periodicals at the longer term and, where possible, at a reduced rate. The mutually advantageous point of reduced operating costs was stressed. The general stability of institutional subscriptions and guarantee of circulation are factors which, when confirmed by widespread adoption of long term orders by libraries, will contribute to reductions in the rate on the part of publishers.

The Committee at work discovered some trends in long term offers and set in motion others. The Superintendent of Documents in 1957 made approximately 300 periodicals available for two and three year subscriptions (without reducing the rates) and the University of Chicago Press made the majority of its publications available at long term, reduced, rates. The latter event was publicized jointly by the Press and the Committee through several media. A study of the F. W. Faxon catalog confirms this trend. A random sampling of titles from catalogs of this subscription agency reveals that 14% of the titles listed in 1954-55 were available long term; the total increased to 25% in 1957/58.

While reporting institutions indicate a maximum of 400 titles so subscribed, information gathered from scattered published sources and through direct contact with publishers, the Committee determined that 700 American titles of general interest are available on long term; an additional 300 were added by cooperating publishers other than the Superintendent of Documents. The experience of the Committee points clearly to the fact that the gathering of the elusive facts into one place is desirable and a consolidated list is available at cost from the Executive Secretary of RSTD. Titles for the list were compiled selectively from the periodical holdings of a large university library, a large municipal public library, and the federal government buying list. Thus the list and the study factors together, related to any given situation, can be made to demonstrate the potential economies.

Using a subscription agency list available soon after the project was started, a tally was made of all periodicals offered at that time on extended term and an impressive conclusion was reached concerning potential rate savings. Where it cost \$2,098.40 for a one year subscription to each title, or \$6,595.20 for three one year subscriptions, the total for three year subscriptions to all titles on the list was \$4,858.25. To place three year subscriptions for all titles then available represented an expenditure of \$2,759.85 in addition to the regular subscription budget in any one year. However, the savings in rates alone was 22.8% over the three year period (\$4,858 contrasted to \$6,295). It is interesting to note that in this price

list sampling the titles available for a two year period represented a saving of 16.4% over the single year renewal rate. Conversion to a long term program requires planning and adjustment of the budget during the first two years of the plan. Discounting the demonstrable factor of clerical savings and the admittedly decreasing, but ever-present titles available only on a one year basis, a simple formula can be derived. Budget costs for periodicals will increase by $\frac{2}{3}$ the first year, $\frac{1}{3}$ the second year and return in the third year to the normal level of expenditure.

The additional fund requirements in the first two years, and the known existence of legal and fiscal restrictions indeed are obstacles to local adoption of a long term program. The Committee is encouraged by the increasing cooperation evidenced by publishers and subscription agents and by the awareness that problems in this area long have concerned librarians. The factors drawn together in the report are offered to encourage librarians to use them as a formula in dealing with local elements of the problem. With costs of postage, periodicals and clerical help rising steadily, the means to offset them are sorely needed. The long term subscription program offers a new standard in the subscription arrangement, one which can reduce substantially the costs of administrative and clerical operations in the total library budget.

Studies and Surveys in Progress

Editor's Note: This inaugurates what we hope to carry as a continuous feature of LRTS. For subsequent issues we want to obtain information regarding studies being undertaken in library schools, by organizations, by groups of libraries or librarians, by individual libraries and librarians. Any study, survey, investigation, or research project which is being planned or undertaken in our fields of interest (acquisitions, resources, cataloging, classification, preparations, processing, library cooperation, copying methods, binding, serials, documents, etc.) is meat for this column, and Miss Sanner will appreciate hearing about it.

It is not intended as a literature search, a bibliographical exercise, or a survey of accomplishment (this latter we try to cover in our Year's Work papers in the Spring issue) but an attempt to keep all of us informed about activities while they are still being planned or currently undertaken.

The success of our column largely depends on the reaction and cooperation of our readers.

I. The Library of Congress has received a grant of \$55,000 from the Council on Library Resources, Inc. to conduct a one-year investigation of the feasibility of cataloging books from page proofs so that publishers may print the cataloging information in the books themselves. The main objective of this project, known as CATALOGING IN SOURCE, is to catalog

a book once, at a central point, for all libraries. It is hoped that this shortcut would result in making new books more quickly available to library patrons, reduce the high cost of cataloging, and provide greater standardization in book identification for librarians, bibliographers, publishers and booksellers.

A previous grant from CLR enabled Andrew D. Osborn, formerly Associate Librarian of Harvard University, to undertake a preliminary survey to ascertain the reaction of publishers and booksellers to the idea. Mr. Osborn interviewed representatives of various publishing houses: general and scientific publishers, university presses, the Government Printing Office and the United Nations publishing branches; in general, his findings were favorable. Now a twofold experiment will be conducted under the general direction of John W. Cronin, Chief of Processing, LC. The ALA, through its Cataloging Policy and Research Committee acting in an advisory capacity, will participate in the project.

LC, with a small group of cooperating libraries, is cataloging 1,000 or more titles from the presses of various publishers, including Federal and State governments. This test will enable the participating publishers and the cooperating libraries to appraise the technical and financial aspects of the system.

The second part of the investigation consists of a consumer survey to determine the effect of "Cataloging in Source" on libraries, publishers, booksellers, etc. Representative libraries of all types are being surveyed for their reaction to the proposed cataloging shortcut. Esther J. Piercy, Chief of Processing, Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, was appointed by the Librarian of Congress as Director of the Consumer Reaction Survey to Cataloging in Source.

The \$55,000 grant will also provide funds for publication of reports on the three aspects of the project: the findings of the preliminary survey, the results of the experiment between the cooperating libraries and participating publishers, and the survey of consumer reaction.

II. The International Federation of Library Associations, composed of fifty-six library associations in thirty-five countries, is proceeding with plans to convene a meeting in 1959 representing the principal library groups throughout the world concerned with revision of cataloging rules. The purpose of this meeting will be the preparation for an INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON CATALOGING RULES at which an effort will be made to reach agreement on coordination of the cataloging rules of countries represented at the conference.

In recent years, a number of countries have been in the process of revising their cataloging codes; as these revisions have been in the direction of similarity, a conference at the present time may result in a coordination of cataloging practices previously thought unobtainable. Financial support for the meeting is provided by a grant to IFLA from CLR. The responsibility for the project will be mainly that of IFLA's Working Group on Cataloging Principles, of which Frank C. Francis of the British Museum is chairman and the Co-Executive Secretaries are A. H. Chaplin of the

British Museum and L. Sickman of the Lehrinstitut Nordrhein-Westfalen, Cologne. Messrs. Chaplin and Sickman took part in the Stanford Institute on Cataloging Code Revision in July.

III. A questionnaire to sound out feeling as to the need for a revised edition of Merrill's *Code for Classifiers* was sent out in May by Elias Jones, Chairman, Merrill Code Subcommittee, ALA Editorial Committee. Ninety-three of the one hundred replies received indicated a need for a new work but were evenly divided between a preference for a revision of Merrill and some other type of work. The Subcommittee believes that a guide with a topical arrangement may meet the need for a NEW PUBLICATION ON CLASSIFICATION. This project is being given further study by the ALA Editorial Committee.

IV. The Cataloging and Classification Section of RTSD and the Reference Services Division of ALA have undertaken a joint study of the use of BOOK CATALOGS AS SUPPLEMENTS TO OR SUBSTITUTES FOR THE CARD CATALOG. This study was instigated by the Cataloging Policy and Research Committee following a suggestion from M. Ruth MacDonald, who is acting as Advisor to the Committee.

V. The Southwest Missouri Library Association, a cooperative formed by ten independent, small to medium-sized public libraries, was organized to provide CENTRALIZED CATALOGING AND OTHER PROCESSING SERVICES (see "Centralized Processing—Missouri Style" by Brigitte L. Kenney, *Library Resources and Technical Services*, 2: 185-190, Summer 1958). CLR has made available to ALA a grant to provide for an analysis of the operations of the Southwest Missouri Library Association in order to make its experiences available to other libraries. The evaluation will be made by Mrs. Brigitte L. Kenney, a graduate student at the University of Chicago's Graduate Library School, working under the supervision of Professors Leon Carnovsky and Ruth L. Strout, together with Mrs. Orcena Mahoney, Executive Secretary, RTSD.

VI. The Committee on Cataloging, Association of Research Libraries, is studying methods of providing CATALOGING COVERAGE OF RESEARCH MATERIALS and eliminating duplication of processing in ARL libraries. The Association hopes to employ a research analyst to survey cataloging policies and practices in ARL libraries throughout the country. The project will concentrate on long-range problems concerned primarily with administrative rather than technical questions. Susan Haskins of Harvard represents CCS on the ARL committee.

VII. A study of the acquisition and bibliographical control of materials published in Eastern Europe was conducted by the Association of Research Libraries in cooperation with the Joint Committee on Slavic Studies of the American Council of Learned Societies and the Social Science Research Council's Committee on Slavic and East European Studies. A report on the study is now being written by Melville I. Ruggles and Vaclav Mostecky, Director and Assistant Director, respectively, of the SLAVIC AND EAST EUROPEAN PROJECT. This study was made possible by a grant from the Ford Foundation.

VIII. The United States Book Exchange, Inc., of Washington, D. C. has received a grant from CLR to make possible a SURVEY OF USBE'S OPERATIONS. The Exchange has been in operation ten years and is now preparing to move from the rent-free quarters it has occupied at LC since its establishment in 1948. The study will concern the effectiveness, scope, resources and expenses of USBE; will define its present and potential value; and will investigate possibilities of expansion and methods of financing future operations. The survey will be under the direction of Edwin E. Williams, Assistant Librarian for Book Selection of the Harvard College Library, assisted by an advisory committee of distinguished librarians.

IX. The National Library of Medicine has received a grant from CLR for a project for the IMPROVEMENT OF NLM'S MEDICAL INDEXING SERVICE THROUGH MECHANIZATION. It is proposed to mechanize the indexing and the preparation of printer's copy of the *Current List of Medical Literature* so as to avoid much of the present manual processing. The project will include experimentation with punch-type-operated typewriters, punched-card-operated cameras, etc. The National Library of Medicine will report on its experimentation and results since it is felt that any improvement in the *Current List of Medical Literature* effected through mechanization may be applied to other indexing services.

X. The New Copying Methods Committee, Copying Methods Section of RTSD, is making a survey of available photocopying services in order to provide up-to-date information on sources and prices for microfilms, photostats, and photoprints of research materials. A questionnaire was sent out and the results will be published as a DIRECTORY OF INSTITUTIONAL PHOTOCOPYING SERVICES AND SOURCES. William R. Hawken, University of California, Berkeley, is Committee chairman.

XI. ALA is conducting an inquiry into the feasibility of a comprehensive RESEARCH-TESTING-STANDARDIZING PROJECT IN LIBRARY TECHNOLOGY: materials, supplies, equipment, and the systems employed in using these mechanical aids in library work. It has long been felt that there was a need for testing and standardization in the library field, but it is also recognized that the establishment of a long-term program for this purpose creates large financial problems.

The purpose of the present project is to determine the arrangements which would be necessary to establish such a program. The study is made possible by a grant to ALA from CLR, and is under the direction of John H. Ottemiller, Associate University Librarian at Yale University. Mr. Ottemiller is contacting librarians in different parts of the country to determine the kind and quantity of equipment needed. Emphasis will be on inexpensive equipment which would be widely used in various types of libraries. Part of the study will be directed toward an exploration of the means for getting the research-testing-standardization done, and the methods of financing a continuing program.

XII. A third seminar on ACQUISITION OF LATIN AMERICAN LIBRARY MATERIALS was held in Berkeley, July 10-11, 1958. The con-

ference was concerned with materials currently published in South America and how to obtain them, with emphasis on publications of Argentine and Chile. The problem of microfilming Latin American materials was the subject of much of the discussion. The Seminar will meet again in 1959 in conjunction with the ALA Conference.—*Marian Sanner, Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, Md.*

Additions to Cataloging Rules

RECENT additions to the *A.L.A. Cataloging Rules for Author and Title Entries* approved by the Library of Congress and the American Library Association include two transliteration schemes and a rule for the entry of Indonesian names. *Cataloging Service Bulletin* 47 carries the text of this rule for Indonesian names and also of the table for Armenian transliteration. The latter was developed by the Orientalia Processing Committee of the Library of Congress and is based on the phonetic values of classical and East Armenian. Variant phonetic values of West Armenian are included in brackets for use in making references for persons known to be linguistically West Armenian.

Arabic Transliteration

More important than the above is the revision and expansion of the Arabic transliteration table printed in the 1949 *Rules*. This revision was originally worked out by the Library of Congress and the University of Michigan Library. In the interest of the widest possible acceptance, negotiations were carried on with several research institutions and the Subcommittee on Transliteration of the Social Science Research Council Committee on the Near and Middle East. A reconciliation of differences was achieved by the Special Committee on Near Eastern Materials of the ALA Cataloging and Classification Section under the chairmanship of Andrew S. Ehrenkreutz, University of Michigan Library. Dorothy Stehle of the Library of Congress deserves much credit for the manual of application.

The Library of Congress has resumed the printing of cards for Arabic materials and will revise Arabic headings based on the old table whenever a new entry involving the heading is catalogued or when one of the old cards must be reprinted for any reason. It is only in this revision of headings that the majority of libraries will be affected. The most obvious changes are in the letter now represented by *q*, which was formerly *k*, and in the diphthongs now indicated by *aw* and *ay*, instead of *au* and *ai*. The full text of the table and manual are to be published in *Cataloging Service Bulletin* 49.—*Audrey Smith, Chairman, Descriptive Cataloging Committee.*

The Printed National Union Catalog: Notes and Suggestions

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IS THE printed National Union Catalog (hereafter referred to as NUC) an invaluable cataloging aid? Experience has forced the Cornell University Library to answer with at least a half-negative. We accept without question from NUC entries bearing LC card order numbers, but we examine with jaundiced eye a goodly number of the others.

NUC has the greatest importance as a guide to the location of titles; and perhaps it is too much to expect it to serve as a cataloging aid, too. But we wonder why *all* libraries cannot follow standard cataloging procedures in their contributions to NUC. Standardization of copy would lighten the burden of the NUC editorial staff, make for a superior printed catalog, and lower cataloging costs in many libraries.

Here are several problem entries we drew from the NUC in the course of our cataloging:

April-June 1957:

Blondel, Maurice

Lettre sur les exigences de la pensée contemporaine . . .

LC had already cataloged this work in an earlier 1957 supplement under Blondel, Maurice. *Les premiers écrits de Maurice Blondel* . . . Thus the NUC entry omitted the first part of the title, using the subtitle only.

April-June 1957:

Controllership Foundation.

Business electronics reference guide . . .

Cataloged as an open entry although it is really a 3d edition of the author's *Electronics in Business*, as the introduction indicates.

April-June 1957:

Lehmann, Paul Joachim Georg

Eine Geschichte der alten Fuggerbibliotheken . . .

v. . . . (Akademie der Wissenschaften, Munich.

Kommission . . .)

Most general series note used in the collation. No tracings are given.

April-June 1957:

Levi della Vida, Giorgio, 1886-

Studi orientalistici in onore di Giorgio Levi della Vida . . .

Even without the book in hand, one could say that this work

has all the earmarks of a Festschrift, as, indeed, it is; and yet it has been entered under the person to whom the studies are dedicated with no subject tracings.

July-Sept. 1957:

Sauneron, Nadia

Études et publications parues entre 1939 et 1954 . . .

Again the omission of the first part of the title: *Temples ptolémaïques et romains d'Égypte*. Consequently the subject tracings lack specificity.

November 1957:

Anfuso, Filippo

Da Palazzo Venezia al Lago di Garda, 1936-1945.
3. ed. . . .

The NUC makes no mention of the fact that the first edition of this work was published in French (Paris, 1949) and that the first Italian edition appeared in 1950 under the title: *Roma-Berlino-Salo*.

Time and again cooperating libraries ignore or purposely omit some feature of description (size, full title, biographical dates, tracings, part of the imprint, etc.) and employ subjects quite different from those of the LC subject headings list, or quite irrelevant subjects.

NUC could perform remarkable service as the authority for entries for most current non-American publications. To achieve this objective it would be necessary to convince contributing libraries to follow standardized procedures—a difficult task at best, because many can aver with little chance for rebuttal that their methods are satisfactory as far as their particular situations are concerned, and that they contribute to NUC only as a cooperative gesture. Also an expanded NUC editorial staff would be required to go over copy and to publish accepted entries as fast as they could be printed. At present the NUC is too slow coming out; this, of course, is an echo of the usual grievance about LC cards. With an enlarged NUC editorial staff it would be practicable to print accepted copy in the LC format and thereby put the seal of approval on that copy. Accompanying the plan proposed above would be almost mandatory acceptance of submitted copy, although choices would have to be made between two or more catalog cards for the same title. Success would rest largely on the efforts of talented, scholarly catalogers with a thorough knowledge of the LC-ALA rules and related literature. Whether such catalogers are in sufficient supply is one of the questions raised by close scrutiny of the NUC as it now stands.

There is perhaps nothing new in the hope of making the NUC serve as the most useful cataloging tool. But the editorial staff of the NUC should not be the only body interested in improving the scope and usefulness of NUC. American research libraries have just as much responsibility, and it is to their interest to cooperate in proposals that strive for this end.

A Note on University Institute Publications

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University of Wisconsin Library

WITH the increase in cooperative and interdisciplinary research on university campuses, institutes of a more or less permanent character have become increasingly common. Though many such centers by reason of the importance of their studies or the stature of their authors achieve a national reputation, the great majority are formed to investigate subjects of local interest and never become widely known. To locate and identify the published reports of their research is a task which frequently frustrates both reference and acquisition librarians.

We have found that the best way of discovering what, if anything an institute publishes is to write and ask for a bibliography. This obvious method has, however, serious limitations. By the time the list arrives, a number of items are usually out of print since the publications of many institutes are mimeographed for limited distribution and the supply is soon exhausted. Moreover, there are many institutes publishing valuable material whose addresses and name are not to be found in their own college catalogs, and there is no adequate directory to these organizations. Bibliographic coverage of institute publications is uneven with the best coverage provided for works issued by regular university presses. A sampling of the *Library of Congress Catalog Books: Authors* reveals that only 73.5 per cent of 394 items checked (published by 19 institutes affiliated with state universities) were listed there. For the *Cumulative Book Index* the figure was 67.3 per cent, and in *P.A.I.S.* we found a disappointing 52 per cent of the social science items. The best bibliographic source we used was the *Monthly Checklist of State Documents* which contained 76 per cent of the titles searched. A check of 72 publications of 6 institutes affiliated with private universities shows 71.5 per cent listed in the L.C. Catalog, 61.3 per cent in *C.B.I.*, and 47 per cent in *P.A.I.S.*

It would appear that there is a need for a clearing house for bibliographical and related information on these organizations. This could be included as an annual note in an existing library periodical. Of equal importance to librarians charged with the responsibility of book selection of university publications would be an extension of the coverage of publications of public universities in the *Checklist of State Documents*. There is much significant information in these processed reports, pamphlets, and working papers that research libraries can not afford to overlook.

Editor's note: The ALA RTSD Acquisitions Policy and Research Committee is now working on the question of standing orders for proceedings of symposia, conferences, etc., which meet irregularly and in various places.

Use of Serial Shelving Numbers in the National Library of Medicine

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THIS PAPER has been prepared in response to numerous requests that the Library publish an exposition on its use of serial "shelving" numbers.

In 1946 when the present cataloging and classification methods were inaugurated at the National Library of Medicine one of the major decisions to be made concerned the problem of arranging and controlling the large collection of serial titles. The scope of collection is very broad, because it includes by definition all titles which are issued in successive parts and are intended to be continued indefinitely (e.g., periodicals, journals, transactions, annuals, numbered series, and other continuations).

In addition to the broad scope, the collection contains a heavy duplication both of titles in many languages and of title entry words. This point may be emphasized by citing examples of the Library's holdings of Spanish language journal titles which have the same title through the first three words of the entry. Examples include the 23 entries beginning *Revista brasileira de*, (e.g. *Revista brasileira de cancerologia*, *Revista brasileira de fisioterapia*, *Revista brasileira de gastroenterologia*, *Revista brasileira de história de medicina*, *Revista brasileira de homeopatia*, *Revista brasileira de oftalmologia*); 43 entries beginning *Revista de medicina*; 76 entries beginning *Revista médica de*; and literally hundreds of entries under such words as *Bulletin*, *Journal*, *Review*, etc.

The alphabetical arrangement of the serial collection had proved desirable through years of Library use. Therefore, in the new plan an alphabetical arrangement was a "must," and because of the duplication of titles noted above it was decided that call numbers would be needed to identify titles and keep them in alphabetical order.

To aid in understanding the system described below, a few of the Library's serial cataloging policies should be noted: 1) All serials, whether title or corporate body entries, are entered under the form of name used at the time of publication. 2) The identifying "shelving" or "title" number is assigned from the first entry cataloged (which may or may not represent the first form published.) 3) This "title" or "shelving" number is retained as long as the volume numbering continues regardless of the number of entry changes which may occur in the meantime.

In line with the Library's broad definition of serials noted above, serials are divided into five categories: serial publications of medical im-

portance; non-medical serials; serial publications of medical congresses; non-clinical serial publications of hospitals; medical serial publications of governments. This paper is an explanation of the numbered arrangement of serial publications of medical importance, which are assigned the over-all form classification number of W1. With a slight modification, the following plan also is applied to serial publications of congresses.

The problem was how to identify the individual titles. Efforts were made to apply Cutter numbers but the problem of duplicated titles and title words was too great. When use of the Cutter-Sanborn tables proved to be unfeasible, it was realized that some new numbering system would have to be worked out. Fortunately, there was available a fairly complete Serials Holdings File on which the planning and testing of various proposals could be tried, until a workable combination of letters and numbers was found. Shelving numbers were written on some of the serials cards, not on every card but on representative cards, so as to control the spread of the numbers through the whole group which would fall under the same two-letter combination.

The basic plan for the numbering is simple:

1. The first two letters of the entry (not an article) are used, e.g., ME for Medicine.
2. The numbers 101-999 are used under each two-letter combination, except when the Library has more than 500 entries under the same two-letter combination, two to five numbers (11-99999) may be used depending upon the number of entries involved.
3. The numbers are used in the same manner as Cutter numbers, being expanded and filed as decimal numbers.

The following list is presented to demonstrate the actual application of the numbering scheme.

W1	RE 4183	Revista de los hospitales
	RE 419	Revista de medicina (México)
	RE 4192	Revista de medicina (Recife, Brazil)
	RE 4225	Revista de medicina aplicada a los deportes
	RE 4225	Medicina del deporte y del trabajo (Note: Continues previous title)
	RE 4285	Revista de medicina legal
	RE 4289	Revista de medicina legal, criminología . . .
	RE 4298	Revista de medicina legal y jurisprudencia . . .
	RE 604	Revista médica (Bogotá)
	RE 6045	Revista médica (México)
	RE 6048	Revista médica (Quito) Official organ of the Asociación Médica de Quito
	RE 605	Revista médica (Quito) Organ of the Asociación Escuela de Medicina of the Universidad Central (Note: This was first title cataloged, therefore, the shelving numbers for the other entries were adjusted to fit them into the scheme alphabetically by place of publication)
	RE 609	Revista médica da aeronáutica

Cataloging of "Folk Music" on Records

SHERMAN ANDERSON

Phonorecord Cataloger, Detroit Public Library

IF THERE is no exact agreement as to what Folk music is, there is considerable agreement as to what Folk music is not. It is not Oriental music, and it is not primitive music, although the Orient does have its folk music and the music of primitive cultures is necessarily folk music.^{1, 2, 3} Therefore, the subject heading, FOLK MUSIC, is used at the Detroit Public Library only for music which is related to Western art music or for music which has been considerably influenced by it.

The decision to so define Folk music was a major one. It did not occur before there had been discussions with the Chief of the Music and Drama Department; his assent was secured in restricting the meaning of the term. The definition of Folk music was communicated to the Music and Drama Department in order to inform the reference librarians what FOLK MUSIC would contain and what it would not contain. This was necessary because, in popular usage, "folk music" includes all primitive and exotic music in addition to the Folk music recognized as such by scholars, and the subject heading was not going to correspond with popular usage. It is assumed here that popular usage is perfectly reflected in the sections of the monthly record catalogs which list "folk music" recordings.^{4, 5}

Yet something was needed in the card catalog to assist the user who wanted "folk music." With the exception of American Indian music, all primitive music is given subject entry under MUSIC, PRIMITIVE. All Oriental music might have been given subject entry under MUSIC, ORIENTAL. Then the person who wanted "folk music," but not American Indian music, could have found every record that the library owned under just three subject headings. However, it was decided that the following reference would be ill-advised:

FOLK MUSIC

see also

MUSIC, ORIENTAL

MUSIC, PRIMITIVE

Therefore, the following scope note was prepared:

FOLK MUSIC

Here are entered recordings of European and American folk music, and folk music which has been influenced by the musical culture of the Western World.

For recordings of folk music of the American Indians see, e.g., INDIANS OF NORTH AMERICA—MUSIC.

For recordings of other folk music see, e.g., MUSIC, AFRICAN; MUSIC—ASIA.

Folk music could not be so defined for recordings as to correspond with popular usage because books describing the same kind of material that is now available on recordings had previously been cataloged with subject entry under MUSIC. Since books about Chinese music had been entered under MUSIC, CHINESE, quite obviously, recordings of Chinese music should be entered with the same subject heading. The possibility of changing the subject entry from MUSIC to FOLK MUSIC, for the books about Oriental and primitive music, was not considered. In the first place, it would be incorrect to make the change, and, in the second place, at the Detroit Public Library, subject heading used for recordings are to have the same meanings as those used for books and scores.

The decision to define Folk music in the manner described above was both a practical and a reasonable one. For example, the phonorecord cataloger should not spend his time trying to determine which music of India is classical, which is folk, and which is popular; people from India, who could be expected to know the difference, might not be able to tell him. Alain Daniélou, Professor of Music at the University of Benares and author, says that "in India it is not easy to separate folk music from art music."⁶ It certainly is not easy for a cataloger in America to do it, and the small amount of Indic music on records would indicate no good reason for trying to make the separation.

It is scarcely possible to describe a "folk music" record satisfactorily and choose effective subjects for it without listening to it, preferably all of it. (If they wish to avoid ludicrous mistakes, phonorecord catalogers are obliged to listen to all music on records which is unfamiliar to them.) This is true because the pertinent printed information is not always complete. For example, one may not be informed that a particular choral organization consists only of women's voices, or that a folk singer is accompanied by guitar or unaccompanied, or that certain folk songs are performed instrumentally instead of vocally and instrumentally. After a recording has been heard, the cataloger may go about his business with some authority.

A performer note is made even though the musicians are usually anonymous, but a standard form for a good performer note is difficult to achieve. Sometimes the performer note and contents note can be effectively combined. They would not usually be combined in cases where the names of all the native instruments employed are easily discovered because the names of the instruments will then be listed in the performer note and it will become lengthy enough. A short performer note, which does not say much but which can be used for most recordings, is the following:

Singers and native instruments.

A formal contents note is seldom made unless the recording consists solely of Folk songs which are likely to be well known. For most record-

ings of "folk music," a contents note listing every title on the record would not give meaningful information. The cataloger can improve the statement of contents by expressing it in his own words, and he should take this opportunity to provide information which can mean something to the reader of the card. *Songs and Dances of Turkey*, Folkways FP 80-1, contains twenty-two titles. The contents note provided on the catalog card for the record is as follows:

Contains folk music, popular music, classical music, and martial music.

When the title of a recording designates only the name of some huge geographical area, a note is given on the card which tells precisely where the music was recorded. The following note was made for the recording, *Indian Folk Music*, Columbia SL 215:

Most of the recordings were made in the region of Benares or in Madras.

Recordings of African music, particularly, need this kind of note.

Like as not, the recording will be accompanied by a pamphlet which contains information not readily available elsewhere. In the future, the existence of the pamphlet will be described on Detroit Public Library catalog cards, and the same of the author, or principal author, will be given as well. The author is often the person who has recorded the "folk music." No note is made in regard to information printed on the verso of the slipcase.

For recordings of performances by anonymous musicians, the main entry is given to the name of the person who has recorded the music in the field. He is not considered to be a mere technician. There are now five main entries for Laura Boulton in the catalog, and each one is for a recording of music which she originally captured. Laura Boulton is a musicologist,⁷ and it is difficult to see how she could avoid exercising the functions of a selector and a collector when she is recording "folk music."

At least half of the recordings recently cataloged were of music collected by men whose names were already entered in the catalog as authors. As a rule, they were not authors of books about music only; they also wrote books in the fields of anthropology and social science. However, one had written a book on Platonism and had recorded Greek folk music; another had compiled a Hanunóo and English dictionary and had recorded primitive Hanunóo music from the Philippines. It might serve no purpose to bring out these names in the catalog of an independent music library, but in a metropolitan public library there could be no question about doing so.

Whether the recording is given subject entry under FOLK MUSIC or under MUSIC, it will also be given entry under DANCE MUSIC too if that subject heading is appropriate. The titles given to recordings of "folk music" do not always indicate that the recordings contain dance music,

and, therefore, it is necessary to listen to them in order to discover that they do. When a person listens to Carlos Montoya, it is quickly apparent to him that he is hearing dance music. That fact is not apparent from the titles of his recordings, but it might be apparent to some catalogers after they had carefully scrutinized the list of contents on each. DANCE MUSIC is used for folk dance music, dance music from any country, and concert dance music; it is subdivided by country. It is not used for popular music or jazz as a rule, although if it were it would reflect popular usage.

The music of Carlos Montoya and other flamenco artists has been given entry under GIPSY MUSIC, SPANISH. There is a cross reference to this subject heading from FLAMENCO (SUBJECT). No entry was made under CANTE HONDO because the Catalog Department could not find sufficient proof that flamenco and cante hondo are synonymous terms as is frequently claimed.

FOLK SONGS is the subject given to a record if it contains only Folk songs; if it contains purely instrumental music as well, the subject heading for it will be FOLK MUSIC. A recording is not entered under both FOLK MUSIC and FOLK SONGS. However, a few recordings have been entered under both FOLK SONGS and SONGS because the printed information with the records indicated to the reader that some of the folksongs had undergone extensive arrangement. In fact, the names of the arrangers were given, and it would be anybody's guess as to how far they had developed into composed songs.

It has always seemed fairly easy to draw the line between vocal music and dance music where serious music was concerned. Where Folk music is concerned, it is not easy. Sooner or later the cataloger finds himself listening to dance songs. It is the impression of this writer that most Folk music performed instrumentally is dance music and that for most of this dance music there are words for singing. Given a recording of a young Swede singing dance songs and accompanying himself with guitar, the cataloger will certainly enter the recording under FOLK SONGS, SWEDISH. Will he also enter it under DANCE MUSIC, SWEDISH, or should he? An entry under DANCE SONGS would be convenient, but the Library of Congress has not yet recognized the need for this heading.

MUSIC, FOLK MUSIC, and FOLK SONGS are all subdivided by national adjective or place. In regard to areas in Europe and the Western Hemisphere, the subdivision is generally by name of country. National adjectives are not used in the subject headings for Oriental music, as a rule, unless the nation is a great one like India or China; MUSIC—ASIA, SOUTH-EASTERN and MUSIC—ASIA, WESTERN are examples of what is in use. The music of India had been entered under MUSIC, HINDU. Later the use of this term was sharply criticized by a gentleman from India, and the subject heading was changed to MUSIC, INDIC so that it will be appropriate for all of the Oriental music of India. Actually, "Hindu" defines a religion and not a race or a region; MUSIC, HINDU would certainly be appropriate for a recording of Hindu religious music.

MUSIC and FOLK MUSIC are seldom subdivided by the names of in-

dividual islands belonging to groups of islands; a recording of Jamaican music was entered under FOLK MUSIC—WEST INDIES. Needless to say, if a book or score had been entered under FOLK MUSIC, JAMAICAN, then the recording would have been entered under that heading as well. Since it happens that Bali and Haiti are particularly rich in musical activity, a cataloger may wish to use subject headings like MUSIC, BALINESE or MUSIC—HAITI. If he decides to use them, "see also" references are needed, e.g.:

MUSIC, INDONESIAN

see also

MUSIC, BALINESE

There is a reason why the specific subject entry is not always chosen. Recordings are not classified, and thus there are no Dewey class numbers given to them which would show geographical relationships among them. "Folk music" of a given area can only be located by subject entry; it cannot be located at all from the shelf list. Now perfectly specific subdivisions of the subject could relate the musical contents of some recordings to very obscure areas of the earth. It is certainly possible that such recordings would then be difficult to locate within a short time if requests were made for music of large, well-known areas, but no subdivisions using the names of these areas had been made. If the subdivisions had been made for the obscure areas which happen to be contained within the well-known areas, they would be discovered only after a thorough check of all geographical subdivisions of the subject. This will certainly be true unless there has been lavish preparation of "see also" references, and time for that sort of work is hard to come by. There are many good arguments for the classification of records; one of the best is that subject entries by themselves are inadequate for recorded "folk music."

The subject heading, MUSIC, AFRICAN, is used at the Detroit Public Library in very much the same way that it is used by the Library of Congress. This use is far more specific than the wording of the subject heading would indicate. MUSIC, AFRICAN might very well be the entry for a collection which included the Oriental music of North Africa as well as the Folk music of the Afrikanders; however, it only serves as the entry for the primitive music of the aboriginal Negro tribes. Are we to assume that Africa will never produce art music? It is going to be a painful experience to discover art music and primitive music mixed together under the same subject heading someday. The present use of MUSIC, AFRICAN can be justified only if we are certain that we will always have just a very small amount of African musical material. From one point of view, it would be desirable if this subject heading were made as specific as another one, i.e., SONGS, AUSTRALIAN (ABORIGINAL).

R. D. Darrell, contributing editor to *High Fidelity*, has noted "the insoluble problems of cataloging folk music recordings."⁸ Although it is true that the problems cannot be perfectly solved, the cataloging of "folk music" can be a rewarding experience whenever some systematic approach to it is finally decided upon. The rewards are not only musical; they are

humanistic in a variety of ways. With recordings one can trace the history of the African art: its place of origin; its transport to tropical America; its survival there in primitive form; its mixture with Western music to form calypso and steel drum music; and at present its return to the West African Coast as a kind of popular or folk music. Sometimes it is possible to enter "folk music" recordings under nonmusical subject headings, such as HINDUISM, VODOOISM, and REVIVALS. All of which often makes the cataloging of these recordings fascinating provided that one listens to them too.

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A Subject Index to the National Union Catalog*

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THE NEED for a subject approach to the materials included in the *National Union Catalog* has been felt for a long time, but especially since 1956, when current monographs catalogued by the major research libraries of the United States were included in *The National Union Catalog; a Cumulative Author List*. It does not appear to be feasible at the present time to publish a subject key to the entire, or "retrospective" union catalog, i.e., the materials published before 1956, due to the economic and editorial problems connected with it. Even the publication of these titles in author arrangement is still far from becoming a fact. Nevertheless, it is believed that a beginning could be made towards a subject key by providing a subject approach to the current monographic materials that will be catalogued by all important research libraries in the U.S.A.

* Paper read at the meeting of the ALA Committee on Resources of American Libraries, Subcommittee on the National Union Catalog, San Francisco, July 18, 1958.

With this consideration in mind, the ALA Committee on Resources of American Libraries and its Subcommittee on the National Union Catalog have requested the Union Catalog Division of the Library of Congress to draft a proposal and prepare cost estimates for the publication of such a key. On the basis of studies conducted by the Union Catalog Division, and of discussions with leading librarians, certain basic patterns for such a planned publication have been developed. The Library of Congress has prepared a plan, without financial commitment, to undertake this project.

The outlines of the proposed *Index*, though in no way definite or final, and subject to approval or change, might be stated as follows:

The proposed publication is not designed to eliminate or to replace present bibliographical controls in the form of card catalogs in the Library of Congress or in other libraries. It is intended to provide a current subject bibliography to all monographic materials that are to be listed in the published *The National Union Catalog*, commencing in 1960. It would be an index in the sense that the user would be referred to the *Author List* in order to find all locations of a title. The publication would be self-supporting.

It is open to discussion whether a monthly index with annual and quinquennial cumulations, or a quarterly index with such cumulations is preferable. For quick information about the most recent publications on any subject, the monthly frequency would be best; for subject bibliography or reference purposes, the quarterly frequency would appear to be more convenient. Economic factors would prevent monthly publication with quarterly cumulations. The quarterly pattern was preferred by several librarians consulted. Such a publication should start out on a current basis, probably with January 1960, which would be the earliest publication date possible in view of the necessary steps for procuring financial support, hiring of staff, etc.

It might be possible to pick up at a later date all imprints of 1956 to 1959 that will have been published in the *National Union Catalog*.

If a subject index to the National Union Catalog could be developed, the *Library of Congress Catalog—Books: Subjects*, in its present form, would disappear with the end of 1959, which is the closing year of its second quinquennial cumulation.

The scope of the new publication has not definitely been decided. It has been suggested that the new publication should be limited to the currently catalogued 1956 and later monographic imprints, or to all 1956 and later imprints (even serials) if the non-monographic materials are represented by LC printed cards. It would also be possible to continue the inclusion of all materials with 1945 and later imprint date, if represented by LC printed cards, a feature of the present *Books: Subjects* which would make the *Subject Index* a mixture of a union catalog and a Library of Congress subject catalog.

The first or second alternative would reflect a better defined scope, the third choice would involve a haphazard element, namely, whether LC happened to process a title published subsequent to 1945. The *Subject*

Index could continue the principle of all-inclusiveness of *Books: Subjects*, namely, the listing of each title under a subject heading or a form heading. It has been suggested, however, that the costs of assigning the subject headings and form headings to titles which according to usage do not have headings traced, and the costs of their inclusion in the *Subject Index* are out of proportion to the usefulness of such subject and form headings and that such entries should be omitted from the *Subject Index*. As in the *Subject Index* of the British Museum, or the *Subject Guide to Books in Print*, entries for belles-lettres, works of creative thought, Bible editions, autobiographies, and books not classifiable "as treating of a distinct subject" could be omitted.

The arrangement of the entries would follow the Library of Congress system of subject headings. A classified arrangement, certainly not without advantages, is not recommended because no single classification system has been generally accepted by American libraries, whereas subject headings have become firmly established with librarians and users of catalogs. Also, subject headings appear in the tracing on almost all catalog cards received by the National Union Catalog. A further limiting factor in regard to a classified arrangement would be the necessity to provide relative indexes to the classification in order to make it usable. The adaptation of all cards to a classified arrangement and the preparation of relative indexes would involve additional editorial work whose costs would be prohibitive for the publication of such a *Subject Index*.

It is a controversial question whether *see* references and *see also* references as used in a subject heading system should be included, or whether a prefatory reference to the Library of Congress *Subject Headings*, 6th edition, would be sufficient. There is no doubt, however, that an integrated subject bibliography must follow a standard list of headings, and that deviations from a standard list, though desirable, meaningful, and justified in an individual library, should be avoided in such a publication. It is proposed that the submitted titles would be edited according to the terminology used in *Subject Headings*.

The entries represented by LC printed cards would appear in the same form as in the present *Books: Subjects* in order to save proof-reading and retyping. Other entries would be prepared on typewriter and limited in their information to full form of entry, short title, place, publisher, date, and main pagination. The symbol for the library first submitting an entry would be added in order to save users turning to the *Author List* in all cases.

The publication would be produced in the same form as *Books: Subjects*, i.e., cards would be mounted, overlapping, on cardboard, and reproduced, in a reduction, by photo-offset. Each page would show 36 to 39 entries, depending upon whether a monthly (quarterly) issue or an annual cumulation is considered.

The anticipated subscription price of the *Subject Index* would amount to about \$450-\$500 per year, based on a minimum of 500 subscriptions. On the basis of 1,000 subscriptions the cost per copy would be about \$250.

The proposed *Subject Index* would serve libraries and scholars alike in providing a subject bibliography covering in one arrangement books and pamphlets, trade publications, government publications, dissertations, and publications of learned societies, in practically all languages, including Cyrillic, Far Eastern, etc. It would serve as a key for research, library acquisitions, and book selection on a scale and current status never accomplished before. The cooperation of all libraries in contributing information and financial support by subscription would be needed to make such a tool successful. The present remarks are intended to serve as an introduction to the problems and as a basis for wider discussion.

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This issue featured papers on centralized or regional processing, including "Guidelines for Establishing a Centralized Library Processing Center" prepared by Evelyn Day Mullen, Library Extension Specialist, Library Services Branch of the U. S. Office of Education.

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